

The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

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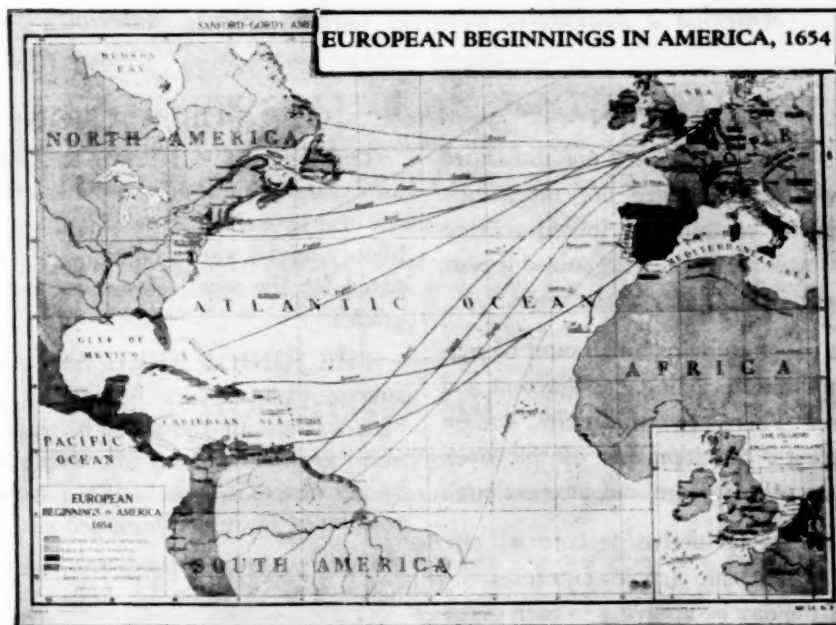
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The Teaching of History in French Lycées and Collèges

BY O. W. MOSHER, JR., AND M. GEORGES QUESNEL*

For those who are interested in the way in which history is taught in the French secondary schools, in a comparison of the French with the American curricula and in recent developments in historical instruction in France, the following article may have significance. The scope of the article is limited to a study of historical training in Lycées and Collèges, although there are of course technical and parochial schools¹ giving historical training worthy of separate treatment, but a discussion of which would be too lengthy and complicated to treat in this article. Since the Lycée and Collège prepare for exactly the same baccalaureate examinations, the historical training in both is practically the same and the two institutions will be discussed interchangeably. As a matter of fact the distinctions between these two schools are very minor: Lycées are generally located in larger cities and the Collèges in smaller communities; Lycées are entirely financed by the government while the Collèges are partly financed by the municipalities in which they may be located. Then, too, it should be noted, that the Lycées, due to the larger salaries offered, are able to secure the services of professors with the advanced standing or degree of "agrégé" while the Collèges, paying less, must usually content themselves with teachers holding the less important degree of "licentiate." These are very minor distinctions, curricula and methods are identical in both types of school and will be so treated in this article.

In making clearer a somewhat complicated subject it has seemed best to subdivide the material according to the following plan:

1. A comparison of grades or classes in France with those in the United States in primary and secondary schools.
2. A general statement as to the nature of preliminary historical training in the primary schools.
3. The order in which the usual periods of historical divisions, ancient, medieval and modern, are taken up in the different years or grades.
4. The place that history occupies in the curriculum.
5. Nature and content of the textbooks and other materials used.
6. Methods employed in teaching history.

* O. W. Mosher, Jr., History Department, Kansas State Teachers' College of Emporia, Kans.; M. Georges Quesnel, Ancien élève du Lycée de Toulouse, France.

7. Recent developments in history instruction in France, and the projects of M. Edouard Herriot for the transformation of the school system, with special reference to its effect on training in history.
8. The authors' conclusions as to what they believe to be the excellencies and deficiencies in the handling of historical subjects in French schools.

1

A COMPARISON OF SCHOOL GRADES IN FRANCE AND THE UNITED STATES

Before launching into a discussion of the problems above presented, a word of explanation with regard to the different grades in French primary and secondary schools as compared with our own appears to be necessary for the sake of clarity. The French system of numbering the grades does not correspond at all to our own; in fact, it is the reverse. After the French child has passed through the Ecole Maternelle similar to our Kindergarten, he enters the primary school. He may take this work either in the "Ecoles primaires élémentaires publiques" (écoles communales) or he may enter the preparatory grades of the Lycée or Collège which, unlike our system of 1st, 2d, 3d grade and so on, begin in reverse with the 11th, 10th, 9th, 8th, 7th grades. All grades prior to the 6th grade of Lycée or Collège are primary grades, above that, secondary. Since the enactment of February 11, 1926, the program of studies is the same for the Ecole communale and the preparatory grades of the Lycée, and the 6th grade of the Lycée may be entered from either school. Thus the French child may enter the Lycée or Collège secondary school at a grade roughly comparable to our seventh grade at about twelve years of age. After the pupil has finished the third grade (classe de troisième), equivalent to our second year in high school, or possibly Junior High, he takes a stiff examination in order to enter what is known as the Second Cycle. At that time the poor students are weeded out and the remainder finish the 2d and 1st classes, at which time the all famous state examination, known as the baccalaureate (first part), is taken. If he succeeds in the first part he returns for a year to pursue either the course of philosophy or the course in mathematics according to his preference. He spends this year in preparation for the second part of the baccalaureate examination. If he passes

this final test he is permitted to enter the Universities and higher schools. Nothing in our school system corresponds to the Philosophy or Mathematics courses; it is perhaps a little like a post-graduate one year course in High School, or a year in Junior College.

The above analogies are very rough, of course, but are given for the sake of comparison according to the relative ages in French schools and our own. In maturity of work required and advanced studies in the curricula the comparison does not hold good. French children mature earlier than ours. At seventeen and eighteen they study philosophy, a subject which is unknown to our high schools. It has frequently happened that a French boy, coming to the United States at the completion of his baccalaureate, usually about eighteen years of age, enters the junior year of our Universities.

2

THE NATURE OF PRELIMINARY HISTORICAL TRAINING IN FRENCH PRIMARY SCHOOLS

France, being a highly centralized state, the requirements for history training in each grade are carefully regulated by law and by ministerial decrees that supplement the law, the details being left to ministerial discretion. In consequence, the present requirements are based on a series of enactments which require some knowledge of French politics to understand. From the sixth century down to the French Revolution instruction in France was given by ecclesiastical schools to the exclusion of civil schools. A distinction between primary and secondary schools appeared as early as the eleventh century, but instruction in both was ecclesiastical. The Revolution of 1789 greatly affected that situation and it was not until the Law of the 11 Floreal An X, that Napoleon, then Consul, attempted to straighten out the confusion by organizing primary and secondary education, requiring administrative authorization for private educational establishments. It was March 17, 1808, before Napoleon brought about the monopoly of the state by creating an imperial University for the general control of all education throughout France. Both primary and secondary schools, as well as the Facultés, were placed under the instruction of ecclesiastics of the Roman Catholic Church, the order of the Brothers of Christian Doctrine (*Frères de la Doctrine Chrétienne*) being given control of primary education. After the decadence of the Empire, the Church sought to regain all its influence, but the government was compelled in 1833 to accord liberty of primary instruction due to the attacks of Montalembert, Guizot, and other anti-clericals. Finally in 1850 the Law Falloux established liberty of secondary instruction. In consequence of Republican hostility to the Catholic Church, the law of 1901 forbade instruction by congregations or Catholic orders that had not been authorized, an interdiction which was consecrated anew by the law of July 7, 1904, which separated Church and State.

As a result of these clerical and anti-clerical shifts the programs for the teaching of history have varied

considerably. The requirements affecting the instruction in history in the primary schools at the present time commence with the decrees of the Conseil Supérieur de l'Instruction Publique in its session of July, 1882, when the following went into effect: "The beginning of the teaching of history in the primary grades is to be the recital of familiar facts concerning great events and personages of French national history down to the year 1328 A.D. [this date was extended to 1453 A.D. by ministerial decree of January 4, 1894]. The second division of the subject is to be from 1453 A.D. to date."

These "recitals" consist of detached stories written in large type about a page in length each and are prepared by the famous historian Ernest Lavisse. They are 94 in number, each paragraph has a number with a corresponding question at the foot of the page for the little folks to answer. The tales are carefully chosen as illustrative of the times and personalities, but are kept as far as possible from the legendary. The illustrations are correct in archaeological detail and the author, Lavisse, appears to have been successful in his attempt to present models of excellence in training for young children. Quite frequently, attached to historical tales, such as that of St. Louis holding court under an oak tree, a lesson of fairness and justice is implied, with moral comments on duty, honor, and patriotism. Accompanying this course are ten wall maps and a volume of historical pictures selected by Lavisse and Permentier. These pictures are unusually rich in detail, taken from old manuscripts, engravings, and paintings. There are, too, copies of ancient windows, pictures of the dress and arms of different centuries; in fact, a whole panorama from the times of ancient Gaul to the present industrial age. These Lavisse Permentier illustrations are so rich in interest and variety that they would form a valuable addition to any school library.

3

THE ORDER IN WHICH THE USUAL HISTORICAL DIVISIONS, ANCIENT, MEDIEVAL AND MODERN, ARE STUDIED IN THE DIFFERENT GRADES

In conformity with the Official Programs of May 31, 1902, and completed by Ministerial Decree of 1923, the following divisions of subject-matter are required in all Collèges and Lycées:

Sixth Class (6ème) for pupils beginning their secondary education at the age of eleven or twelve years, the subject of the Orient and Greece.

Fifth Class (5ème), Roman History.

Fourth Class (4ème), Middle Ages to 1328.

Third Class (3ème), XIV, XV, XVI centuries (1328-1610).

At this point the pupil is required to take an examination in order to enter the 2nd Cycle. If he is successful, then being about fifteen or sixteen years of age, he enters the Second Class and takes up a more intensive study of more recent history, thus:

Second Class (2ème), Modern History (1610-1789).

First Class (1ère), 18th Century-Revolution and

Empire period (1789-1848).

Should he then succeed in passing the first part of his baccalaureate he comes back to school, as stated above, for a year's course in Philosophy or Mathematics, at which time he studies 19th Century History, from 1848 to 1930.

4

THE PLACE THAT HISTORY OCCUPIES IN THE FRENCH CURRICULUM

In general, history occupies a position of average, but not exceptional importance in the curriculum of Lycée or Collège. The French pupil averages 22 to 23 hours a week of class work. Of this period three hours a week are usually devoted to history. As compared to languages, history holds a minor place, but as will be seen about the same amount of time is accorded it as is given to the living languages, English, German, Italian or Spanish. A sample program taken from the Classe de 2eme (Second Class) gives a fair idea of the amount of time devoted to the different subjects:

French	4	hours	a	week
Latin or Greek.....	4	"	"	"
Living Language	3	"	"	"
Mathematics	4	"	"	"
Physics-Chemistry	4	"	"	"
History-Geography	3	"	"	"
Art-Design	2	"	"	"

Total 24 hours a week

5

NATURE AND CONTENT OF THE TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER MATERIALS USED

Professor Henry Johnston, of Columbia Teachers' College, author of the well-known work on "Teaching of History," accords high praise to the French textbooks, and the aids to memory (*Aide Memoire*) and *Manuels* that are employed for review in preparation for the examinations. In general these texts contain chapter by chapter a rigorous conformation of subject-matter specified for instruction in the ministerial programs, programs which have had the most thoughtful consideration by experts both in the fields of history and pedagogy. The series of texts thus prescribed by the State were principally written by Albert Malet, formerly *Professeur Agrégé* at the Lycée of Louis le Grand in Paris. At the beginning of the world war this eminent historian left for the front and lost his life in the offensive in the Champagne region, September, 1914. Since this time his works have been supplemented and corrected by various historians in the several fields, but most of the texts still bear the mark of Malet's fine impartial scholarship. Each chapter begins with as brief a résumé as possible of the question to be studied, then comes an examination of the causes, a recital of events, and finally a discussion of the most essential consequences and characteristics of the period. As Malet said, "History must not appear to children like disconnected episodes or detached pictures as incoherent as the pictures in a gallery. Chil-

dren must be given the impression of a chain and continuity of events, becoming more and more complex as they advance through the ages." There is also a discussion of the larger considerations involved, at least in the texts for the higher classes. Thus the pupils are early trained to feel and understand the mechanism and association of events, and to attempt to arrive at the great ideas which might logically be disengaged from the facts.

Throughout all these texts there are on the average more than two hundred engravings of historical paintings, works of art, and museum pieces, authentic from an archaeological standpoint. Beneath each picture there is a short explanatory note, and where a copy of the portrait of a celebrity is shown, there is a summary statement of the chief facts in his life, and interesting comments tending to point out how the character may perhaps be shown by certain lines in the face, or in the expression of the eyes, or the characteristic shape of the Valois nose, for example. Twenty or more maps are well adapted to illustrate the text. In the appendix are chronological tables of events and the like. For example, in the text treating of Roman history there are tables of monies, weights, and measures, an alphabetical index with descriptions of the original sources employed, such as Livy, Suetonius, Horace, and the like.

A recent requirement by the Minister of Education places in the hands of the pupils collections of source materials containing a great many citations from historical manuscripts and documents. Thus at a very early age the pupil is given a critical point of view with regard to the sources of his information. We are, in the United States, well acquainted with Source Books, such as Robinson's *Readings* and Hart's *Sourcebooks*, and the like, but these are rarely much used in the lower grades; their use being largely optional, but in France they become an integral part of historical training.

In addition to the text, in order to help organize the work in the pupil's mind and also to aid in the preparation of the various examinations there are aids to memory (*Aide Memoire*). An "aide memoire" is a small, compact volume divided into the natural divisions of the subject. Each division commences with a statement of the principal events with dates, followed by a summary of the considerations to be derived from the facts. The biographies of leading statesmen are given, with many questions and examples of adequate replies. Should the pupil wish, he can also employ the *Manuel of Chronology* by Dujarric, published by Albin Michel, in which the forms of government, the world eras, dynasties, treaties, battles, and principal events are summarized.

To conclude, it would be a conservative statement to say that the texts have a great wealth of material well arranged and finely illustrated. While the quality of paper and binding is not so good as in our texts, the book is strongly enough bound to be serviceable and sells at an astoundingly low price. Since these texts and no others are allowed in the schools throughout France, it is possible to sell them to the

children at such low prices. The cheapest, 420 pages, illustrated, sells at 11 francs, about 45 cents, while the most expensive, 1176 pages, sells for about 80 cents.²

6

METHODS EMPLOYED IN TEACHING HISTORY

A great deal of attention is given in the history classes to the preparation of excellent notebooks. French students are trained from the earliest years to draw and paint by veritable artists, and when it comes to the preparation of notebooks, they are capable of making maps and illustrations that are often unusually good. French handwriting is artistic in appearance, sometimes resembling engraving in its delicacy. Closely written summaries of their own findings and of the teachers' lectures, with maps and illustrations, all done with an artistic touch surprise one in comparison with the shoddy note-taking so common in this country. This careful training in early years prepares the pupil for effective recording of lectures when he reaches the university. The teacher examines these notebooks nearly every day. Instead of using 100 per cent. as a basis, 20 is the maximum mark. So strict is the grading that 12 is considered very fair.

The highly centralized system directed by the Minister of Education in Paris has certain advantages, in case a pupil moves from one part of France to another. For instance, a pupil could move from the south of France to the north, from Toulouse to Strassbourg or from the east to the west, from Bordeaux to Evian on Lake Geneva, and not lose time—for the lesson assignments are practically the same, and given out in almost identical form on the same day throughout the country. Government inspectors go everywhere to inspect the professors, to see that the instruction is well given and carefully conforming to the official programs. Although the inspection has for purpose rather the inspection of the professor than the pupils, there is considerable anxiety when an inspector is about due, and there is a great furbishing up of notebooks. In the taking of notes, one of the ministerial instructions reads that the teacher is not to dictate but to see that the pupil has put down in his own words the substance of what has been said.

Considerable latitude is given the professor in the way in which he conducts the recitation, but the following approximates the usual method: There is usually a lecture illuminating and following the plan of the text,—a lecture which may be precise or general according to the mentality of the professor. With this lecture and the help of the textbook the lesson is prepared for the following day. In the recitation the teacher calls one pupil to the rostrum and has him state the question, outline the principal parts and discuss each, using the maps and blackboard to illustrate his talk. The teacher recognizes the different pupils and they ask questions of the one who has the floor or may add information that the one reciting has overlooked. The teacher frequently turns from the pupil on the rostrum, who may be stumped, to hunt for the answer from the bright members of the class. In this way the main part of

the recitation—to the extent of nearly a half hour—may be in the hands of a single pupil. He thus has an opportunity to make well-rounded statements and to answer criticisms. Recently the study of source materials by the class has been added to the work—the examination of citations from historical manuscripts and documents.

In these recitations little attention is paid to the dull pupils. If they do not wish to join in the work, they will soon be put out of the Lycée or Collège as a result of the examination separating the period of the first and second cycle. In consequence the teacher concentrates on the bright members and lets the dull ones sit there, usually in stolid silence. If there is any disturbance the recalcitrant pupil is sent to the Surveillant General where punishment is meted out according to a carefully considered code. In general not more than two or three pupils take the lead in reciting during the hour.

Once every three months there is a written test which lasts one hour. At the most important baccalaureate examinations the history examination is entirely oral, in contrast to the examinations in Latin, French, and the sciences which are both written and oral.³

7

THE PROGRAM OF M. EDOUARD HERRIOT FOR THE TRANSFORMATION OF THE FRENCH SCHOOL SYSTEM AND ITS EFFECT ON HISTORY INSTRUCTION

The preceding pages have indicated the numerous stages through which instruction has passed in France. Since the 19th century the question of education has become more and more a ground for political strife. At the present time, France appears to be passing into a new phase of that evolution. The present tendency is in the direction of complete unification of all instruction. In October, 1926, M. Edouard Herriot came forward with a plan for the grouping of all types of secondary schools, Lycées, Collèges, technical schools, and the écoles primaire supérieur in such a way that the term Collège should become, according to the original sense of the word, a reunion or organized grouping of all instruction. This project has not been applied as yet. Nevertheless, one step has been made toward that end in that the educational programs for boys and girls in Lycées and Collèges have been made identical, the same instruction being given in history in preparation for the same baccalaureate examinations.

According to the Herriot plan the masterpiece of the new educational edifice will be the establishment of L'Ecole Unique, a single unified school, in which all children both boys and girls up until the age of about twelve years will receive primary education according to the same programs. At twelve years, an examination for selection will decide whether the child is fitted for secondary education in a Lycée or not. This secondary education will be compulsory for those who pass the examinations. At the present time primary instruction is free—but there are tuition charges and fees to be paid for lycée and collège instruction. Under the Herriot plan all secondary education will also be free.

This new organization will certainly have a repercussion on the attitude toward instruction. In so far as the study of history is concerned the consequence will be most important. According to the plan, primary education will deal above all with the facts of history; secondary education will be devoted to creating the reflective spirit, reasoning, and interpretation, the facts being only employed as a substratum on which the pupil will base his reasoning and exercise his intelligence. Finally, superior education in Facultés at the Universities will train the student in the methodology of history, giving him a scientific method rather than requiring from him a strict knowledge of facts. Such arbitrary divisions might suggest that the realization of the project of this *Ecole Unique* might result, in the early years, in a sacrifice of reason and intelligence to memory. However, adjustments would doubtless be made, the above divisions of mental functioning being rather in the nature of a general program than a call for strict adherence to doctrine.

8

CONCLUSIONS AS TO THE TEACHING OF HISTORY IN FRANCE

To the American writer, as the reader can see all through this article, the teaching of history in France appears to be on a high plane, the excellences appearing in remarkably good inexpensive texts, close attention to the training of the pupil in note taking, the early respect for truth engendered by a critical examination of source material, and the requirement of well-rounded recitations from each pupil at frequent intervals. The writer would be remiss, however, if he did not point out certain matters that might well be regarded as weaknesses. First of all, the pupils get little opportunity to read in collateral works in the libraries—the libraries in the lycées and collèges are for the use of the faculty—not the

pupils. Then, too, current events are little touched upon. One reason for this omission is that France is full of bitter factions, Catholic and anti-Catholic, republican, monarchist, socialist, and communist, so that "events usually have to be ten years old before it is safe to venture an opinion in class," as one professor humorously stated the situation. True, the courses in 19th century history have Malet and Isaac's splendid textbook, and these give the background of such controversial topics as the separation of church and state in 1904, the World War and the like in as detached a manner as possible, but there is too much danger of offending the parents of the pupils by touching on religious and party controversies, so current events are not taught in the schools to any appreciable extent. The knowledge of these subjects is often sketchy or derived entirely from the home paper, which is often violently partisan.

To employ only one text throughout all the schools of France, the government permitting no choice in selection either to the Lycée or to the professor, would seem to be too restrictive. Were it not that the texts are so unusually good, this would indeed be a fault. As it is, the central government has certainly made an admirable selection.

¹The Ecoles Libres Catholiques often prepare for the state baccalaureate examinations, following the same program as the state schools (lycées and collèges) in so far as they correspond to the level of their studies.

²Official texts referred to (6th class—6ème) Malet and Isaac, *L'Orient et la Grèce*. (5th class—5ème) Malet and Alba, *Histoire Romaine*. (4th class—4ème) Malet, *Le Moyen Age*. (3d class—3ème), Malet, *XIV-XV-XVI Siècles*. (2d class—2ème) Malet, *Historie Moderne*. (1st class—1ère) Malet, *Revolution et Empire*. (Philosophy or Mathematics) Malet and Isaac, *19ème Siècle*.

³The assistance of Miss Nancy, daughter of the Comtesse de Thaon, chateau Lauzette, Allinges-Mesanges, Hte Savoie, France, who has been attending Lycée in Paris, is gratefully acknowledged for her additional comments on the practical teaching of history in the classroom.

In Days of Old when Teachers were Bold— and Needed to be*

BY MRS. M. W. BAKER, JOHNSON, VT.

I wonder what the teachers of 1930 who sometimes think their work hard, would say about the work of District School Teachers in northern New England a century ago.

As the towns were surveyed, they were divided into Districts, whence the name, District School (very apt to be pronounced "Deestrick"). The first schoolhouses were of logs, as were all buildings until saw-mills were started. When, later, frame buildings took their place, they were of the cheapest construction, for money was scarce, and "hard to come by," as our ancestors phrased it. Until stoves came into use, the heating-plant was a fireplace,

built of the native stone, chimney and all. Wood was more than plenty, and after the fire got to burning well in the morning, it roasted the small children on the front benches, while the large scholars in the back seats, where the wind came merrily in through the cracks, sat and shivered and kicked their feet noisily together in a vain attempt to warm them.

A traveling minister who visited one of these backwoods schools, told of a small boy who sat at one end of a front bench, as far as he could get from the fire, but squirmed and twisted in the heat, even after taking off his coat. The minister noticed him, and asked him kindly what was the matter.

"Oh! sir," was the anguished reply, "my shirt sweats!"

* Editor's Note.—The writer of this article is past ninety years of age, and still keeps her interest in schools and school people.

The rough plastered walls of the later school-room were perfectly bare, no maps or pictures of any kind. There might be a blackboard, two feet by four, but that was an unwonted luxury. Such a thing as a globe, for teaching geography, was unthought-of. The furnishings were meager, a hand-made splint-bottomed chair for the teacher, an ancient wooden water-pail, which the boys filled with snow in the winter, and the thirsty ones drank as it melted, from a gourd-shell, maybe, a thick earthen-ware dipper, or, more rarely, a much-battered pewter mug (tin-ware had hardly appeared in the offing at that time); also a birch or hemlock broom, with which the floor was supposed to be swept.

The early settlers, mostly from southern New England and of native American stock, had a great reverence for "book-larnin'," and wanted their boys and girls well-grounded in the "three R's," 'Readin', 'Ritin', and 'Rithmetic'. An "edecation" was part of a man's stock in trade. Twelve weeks of school in the winter, and twelve in the summer was considered to be a fair distribution of time for school purposes, as all children that were large enough, must work. The winter teachers were usually men, that could wade through the snow, wrestle with big sticks of wood, and keep the fire going. Often, in those days, they were mature men, heads of families, who had come from farther south, where they had a good common-school education. In the winter there was less to do on their new farms, and, often, they had been teachers down there, so they were just the ones to manage a room-full of big girls and boys, especially boys. The age and authority of such men made "putting the master out," which came to be a diversion of the big boys, later on, too doubtful a proposition to handle.

And the pupils—there was no age limit at either end of the line. The young man in his twenties, and the lass of any age, if not needed at home, came to school. Children of tender age, three or four years, came, to have them out of the way at home, for houses were small and children numerous, in many families. Some mothers were conscientious enough not to send their little ones to school, until they had mastered the alphabet at home. As they phrased it:

"I know the teacher has enough to do without larnin' the children their letters. I never let any of mine go till they was ready for their a-b abs."

From the beginning, "boarding around" seemed to be a necessity for the teacher, so many days for a scholar, according to their number. The people had all they could do to pay the teacher's meagre wages, without also paying for board at one place. But "boarding around" had its advantages. It gave the teacher an opportunity for better knowledge of the pupils, even though some places were uncomfortable to live in. At most homes, however poor they might be, the teacher was treated as "company," the best food and furnishings the housewife could compass, were set forth. And the children always were elated when the teacher "boarded at their house."

One of a teacher's necessary qualifications was the ability to make a quill pen, for steel pens were then unthought of. The pupils brought goose quills, and the skillful teacher, using his penknife, fashioned them into pens. Thus pocket-knives got their name. It was a necessary and useful art, in which some teachers excelled, and others never really succeeded. The copy-books were ruled blank books, of coarse paper, with a copy on the upper line, and the pupil, squared up to his desk, pen pointing over his right shoulder (tongue in his cheek), followed the copy, be it "pot-hooks and trammels," the alphabet in large and small letters, or a quotation from some author, which often seemed to lose much of its beauty by the awkwardness of the writing. Yet some pupils, with, seemingly, no effort at all, became fine, and even ornamental penmen, while others, strive as they might, barely attained legibility, which goes to show that good penmanship is more of a natural than an acquired art.

The textbook in arithmetic was the old leather-bound Adams' Arithmetic, much longer than wide, like an account-book, and every other page left blank, for the pupil to cipher on. Slates, with their squeaking pencils, came later. After the four cardinal points,—Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication, and Division,—came Vulgar and Decimal Fractions, Weights and Measures, the Rule of Three, Square and Cube Root, Interest, both Simple and Compound, and Partial Payments, a terrible bugbear. There was Allegation, both Medial and Alternate, and some other useless things. Nothing of Banking, or Stocks and Bonds. The last printed page was of deep interest, really a collection of riddles and puzzles: "As I was going to St. Ives, I met seven wives," etc., was one. There was the frog climbing out of the well, getting up three feet every day, but falling back two feet every night, and the fox and goose and peck of shelled corn that their unfortunate owner had to carry across a river, in a boat that would hold only two of them besides himself. And there were others of the same nature.

The greatest lack of the old schools was that of textbooks. In these days, when books of all sorts are "a drug in the market," we cannot realize what it was to have almost none at all. The proverbial Bible and Almanac which was said to comprise the family library sometimes lacked the Almanac.

The writer once saw a letter written in the '30's, by a mother to her young son, temporarily away from home, to accompany a book she was sending him.

"You must be very careful of it," she wrote. "Always wash your hands before you open it, and never leave it lying around. Keep the cover clean." Careful mothers covered school-books with cloth, up to a much later date.

The New Testament was, for a long time, the common reader in school. The days of using the "long s" in printing were not so long gone by but that most Testaments had them, a century ago, and they were a veritable stumbling-block to many a small mind.

An elderly lady once told the writer of her early struggles with the "long s." She was studying her New Testament reading lesson, and came to the word "Jesus." She spelled it out, J-e-f-u-s. What could that spell? She couldn't imagine, so carried the book to her teacher for information.

The teacher was hearing a class. She glanced at the word, said "Jesus," and went on with the recitation.

The child went back to her seat, puzzled. How could J-e-f-u-s spell Jesus? The teacher must have been mistaken. How *could* she tell, just looking at it? "I'll wait a little, till she forgets it and then I'll ask her again," thought the child. But the teacher hadn't forgotten, when she went the second time. "That word is Jesus," she said. "I told you so before."

"But I don't see how J-e-f-u-s *can* spell *Jesus*."

Then the teacher, with infinite patience, showed the child the tiny mark on only *one* side of the long s, while f had the mark clear across it.

Be thankful, you 1930 teachers, that you have not the long s to contend with! To make it still more puzzling, the usual crooked s was used at the end of a word!

This same little girl, at the age of 14, took one of the hardest winter schools in town, for her first attempt, and proved herself a fine disciplinarian.

The oldest and biggest of the boys, an overgrown and thick-skulled lout named Reuben Smith, plainly meant to have his own way, and defy the teacher.

There was a stream not far from the school-house, but out of sight, and too far for any one to hear the rapping of the ferule on the window, the signal for school. This same ferule, applied to the palm of a bad boy's hand, had a good effect on his behavior.

"If the boys went there skating at noon, they were always tardy," she went on, "so I forbade their going. 'Rube' was the only one who defied the rule."

He came in one afternoon a half-hour late.

"Where have you been?" I asked.

"Skatin'."

"Didn't you know I forbade skating at noon?"

"Yes, ma'am," he said sullenly.

I saw that a crisis had come and I must meet it.

"James," I said to a large boy, "please go out and cut half a dozen stout birch sticks."

James went. "Rube" sat doggedly silent. When James came in with the sticks, I paused in the recitation I was hearing, opened the door of the big box stove, and held them there in the fierce heat for a minute to take out the frost and temper them. I selected two of the largest, and, with an air of bravado I was far from feeling, started up the aisle towards the back seat where "Rube" was sitting, my knees shaking so I could hardly walk. I fixed my eye on him, but, before I reached him, his face began to pucker, the tears ran, he went down on his knees in the aisle, and begged me to forgive him. He was one of my best boys after that.

A century ago a printed book was regarded almost with veneration. When, in the latter part of the

18th century, Noah Webster compiled his American Spelling Book, he could not foresee the immense results. It proved to be the greatest factor in common-school education, for more than half a century, passing through an untold number of editions, and more than sixty-two million copies were printed, more than any other book except, perhaps, the Bible.

In 1829 he changed the name to "The Elementary Spelling Book," and it was still "going strong in 1843, when the sale was a million copies per annum. The royalty he received on it was only one cent per copy, but it supported him and his family while he was compiling his Dictionary, which he began in 1807, and finished in 1828.

For many years spelling-schools, tournaments we might call them now, were favorite winter evening gatherings. Young and old came to some school-house or hall, "chose sides," stood up and "spelled down," the one standing longest being the victor. It was something to be proud of, for there were mighty spellers in those days. Noah Webster's spelling book can be credited with the immense interest in spelling, but we should characterize it now as "funny."

The mind of a child is not fitted to take in allegorical meanings, and this is about the way we youngsters looked at the frontispiece. A grown person in what was probably a Grecian costume (anyhow, it was *queer*), clutched by the arm a child, similarly attired, and carrying a book under his other arm, his hand upraised as if in wonder. The older person was pointing to a building at the top of some rough rocks, that had "Knowledge" in large letters on the front. And on the very point of the gable, in a most dangerous position, another figure stood, holding a long rod in one hand, and what looked like an apple in the other. Our supposition was that the child was being told never to do that dangerous stunt! A dome, rising in the background, had on it "Fame," in large letters, but we couldn't see what that had to do with the business.

Beginning with the alphabet, and a-b abs, it went on to longer and longer words to be spelled with sentences below to be read, thus combining a speller and reader in one. The writer can remember when, for lack of other reading, we read and re-read those sentences till we knew them by heart. Some examples follow:

"The first joint of a man's thumb is one inch long."

"Forks have two or three tines."

"Do not take much snuff."

"You must stop at a colon while you count one, two, three."

"Bathing houses have baths to bathe in."

"The chewing of tobacco is a useless custom."

"A virago is a turbulent, masculine woman. No one loves a virago."

"It is very useful for bread to knead it well."

"Large, bushy whiskers require a good deal of nursing and trimming."

"The two longest wharves in this country are in New Haven and Boston."

The very first sentence in the book meaning anything was "She fed the old hen." The small boy

who noisily and painfully had spelled that out, letter by letter, in his reading class, wore a triumphant air. He had really read something!

The crowning touch, to our young minds, was the little collection of pictured fables in the back part of the book, after all the jaw-breaking words like incomprehensibility, sycophantize, valetudinarian and their ilk were out of the way. Those fables were pictured stories, a rare treat to us, "new every morning and fresh every evening," though we knew them by heart.

"An old man found a rude boy up on one of his trees stealing apples, and desired him to come down, but the young sauce-box told him plainly that he would not. 'Won't you?' said the old man, 'then I will fetch you down'; so he pulled up some grass and threw at him, but this only made the youngster laugh, to think the old man should pretend to beat him down from the tree with grass only.

"'Well, well,' said the old man, 'if neither words nor grass will do, I must try what virtue there is in stones.' So the old man pelted him heartily with stones, which soon made the youngster hasten down from the tree, and beg the old man's pardon."

Oh! glorious, retributive justice!

"The Country-maid and her Milk-pail," was another prime favorite, it was so *human*. She was pictured carrying a pail, a pail of milk on her head, while "she fell into the following train of reflections"—

She planned to buy eggs with the money the milk would bring, and raise chickens from them. She would market the chickens at Christmas, and get money enough to buy a new gown. "Green becomes my complexion best, and green it shall be." This gown she would wear to the Fair, where all the young men would strive to have her for a partner, but she would "toss from them with an air of disdain." Unconsciously she acted out the triumphant thought, and down came the pail, milk and all!

Perhaps there is no more fitting conclusion to this account of the old schools than a bona-fide description of a little girl's first day at school in the early '40's. She was not yet four, and small for her age, but she had learned to read at home as far as one-syllable words. School readers were coming in then.

The very small children, who were learning the alphabet, were the first class, and Ellen was so small that the teacher took it for granted she belonged there.

"Come, Ellen," she said.

So Ellen came and stood in a line with the others, their chubby arms folded in front, and their little, bare toes even with a crack in the dusty floor.

"Manners!" said the teacher.

This was an unvarying ceremony at the beginning and end of every class. All the little girls made funny courtesies, and all the boys, jerky, little bows.

Then the class read the letters as the teacher made them on the blackboard, Ellen calling them out first of all. It seemed like play to her. So the teacher took a spelling book, called Ellen to her side, pointed out the letters with a pin, and Ellen read them,

down and up, and skipping about.

"Manners!" said the teacher again, when the class was over, and there were more bows and courtesies.

"You need not go to your seat, Ellen," said the teacher. "You may stay there and read with the next class"—

The class in a-b abs came out, and after more "Manners," they read and spelled, Ellen the best of any of them. Then more "Manners."

In the middle of the forenoon there was a ten-minute recess, when the children rushed, shouting, into the school-yard. There the girls played "Ring-Round-Rosy," and "Needle's Eye," while the boys played "King Sail Out."

At noon, school was dismissed, and the children who lived too far away to go home for dinner, ate their lunch from the baskets they had brought with them. Ellen ate with her sister and brothers, and how good it was! Quite like a "picnic," though that word had never been heard of. Then they ran out and played till one o'clock.

When the First Reader class was called in the afternoon, the teacher said, "I'll try you in this class, Ellen," and she read better than any of the others.

"You may try the Second Reader, Ellen," said the teacher, after the "Manners." So Ellen stood on the floor till that class came, and after more "Manners," she read with them. That seemed worth the while to her, like a real story. She wanted more of it.

"How did school go, Ellen?" asked her mother when she came home at night.

"I like it! I read my letters in the morning, and the Second Reader in the afternoon."

"Well, well!" laughed her mother. "At that rate you'll be studying Latin before summer is over."

"I thought I was making 'Manners' most all the time," said Ellen. "Father must buy me a Second Reader. The teacher said so."

The summer numbers of the *Nineteenth Century* are of peculiar interest to historians. The June number has a most timely article on the Indian situation by Professor J. Coatman: the unrest set in motion by Gandhi ought not to be overrated: the disturbances which have occurred have been sporadic and due to peculiar exuberance, and the movement itself has quite failed to become what the leader desired, and if his policy does not find wide acceptance, the goal of Dominion status does. In the July number Sir Henry Sharp supplements the Simon Commission report, in his observations on education in India. In the June number Mr. H. Sidebotham examines the Navy Treaty, and does not hesitate to say it is not a step forward, because of the way in which the question of freedom of the seas was shirked. He condemns especially Mr. MacDonald, who had the key to the whole problem of disarmament, but who let it drop and contented himself with arithmetic. In the same number Lord Winterburn, M.P., writes of Egypt. Strategically, the British are stronger than ever there, but if the fellahs suffer, as he thinks they will, under Egyptian administrators, they must blame themselves. Mr. Duff-Cooper examines the political outlook, and finds it favorable rather to the conservatives, than to the others; while Sir H. Perry Robinson, in estimating Haig's military genius, finds it on a par with that of Wellington and Marlboro. In the July issue Sir Arthur Steel-Maitland, M.P., gives his attention to unemployment, which he believes is providing the first great test of democracy.

Sociology, by Project and Problem

BY R. C. HURD, WAUKEGAN TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL, WAUKEGAN, ILL.

Sociology, because of its newness in the field of the high school, presents a challenge to the teacher with an adventurous turn of mind, for there is no recognized technique, as in the older related subjects, and the teacher is free to work out the methods by which this interesting course may be taught. There seems, also, to be no general agreement as to the objectives to be reached, for, until very recently, every text to be found in the subject was either a modified college text, or a bold experiment on the part of the author, with none of the marks of similarity so commonly found in texts in history or political economy. It has been the pleasure of the author of this article, during the past six years, to teach sociology in two high schools, and to work out numerous problems and projects with the classes taught. Some of the outstanding ones will be described in the paragraphs which follow.

The first project worked out was with the problem of immigration. An account of this project appeared in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for March, 1924. It was entitled, "Ellis Island, America's Gateway." The class worked up this short demonstration of the conditions at Ellis Island and presented it as an assembly program before the students at Marshalltown, Iowa, High School. It was written by members of the class, rehearsed in the classroom, parts were taken by students of the class, and it was even directed by one of the dramatically-minded and trained girls in the group. It certainly vitalized the immigration and Americanization problem, not only to the members of the class, but also for the entire student body.

The second project worked out was likewise a motivated study of the immigration problem. Two sociology and two American history classes presented an outdoor pageant, "Builders of Democracy," in which two of the four episodes dealt with immigration. Colonial scenes were shown in the costumes of the day and the stirring incidents of the Revolutionary War days were re-enacted. A cross-section of recent immigration was given in the other episode, staged by the sociology classes, with folk songs and folk dances. Members of a foreign-born night school were grouped with pupils of the sociology class in charge, all dressed in the costumes of the country represented, and there was much of value in this grouping, both to the students of the high school and to the foreign-born. In both classes the preparation was done in the classroom. An extended account of this pageant appeared in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for May, 1925.

Sociology, perhaps better than any other of the social studies, lends itself readily to the problem method of teaching. Such problems as the race question, poverty, and crime are good examples. It is easy to break up these or other problems into a number of interesting phases, but it is not always so easy to secure the proper materials for the students to

use, nor to get them to use such materials when they are available. I hit upon the plan of requiring all students to read at least one book during the first six weeks from a list of books kept either in the public or the school library. It was not difficult to get the whole-hearted co-operation of most of the students, for not only did they get credit for this reading during the first six weeks, but they were expected to use the same material later when the problem was being discussed with which their book was associated. For example, Booker T. Washington's "Up From Slavery" not only gives a good picture of the life of its author, but also describes negro education in the South. W. E. B. Dubois' book, "Souls of Black Folk," gives a contrasting viewpoint of negro education. Again, "The Jukes" furnished an explanation of both crime and poverty. We have on our list more than fifty books which are suitable for this kind of work, among others such books as Steiner on immigration, Taylor and Train on crime, and several of the *Chronicles of America* series, among them, "Colonial Folkways," the "Forty-niners," and the "Cotton Kingdom." Several interesting biographies of foreign-born citizens on the list are, "The Iron Puddler," by James J. Davis; "From Immigrant to Inventor," by Michael Pupin; and "The Americanization of Edward Bok." The book reports were given orally and this afforded the teacher a splendid opportunity to talk with the student about his or her life work.

On three occasions it was possible to interest classes in criminal procedure by staging mock trials. At one time I pitted two classes against each other, one taking the prosecution, the other the defense. The attorneys took counsel with downtown lawyers, prepared their case (also their witnesses), and after a few days, were ready for the trial. There were four hundred students and townspeople in attendance. The "Sheriff" had subpoenaed more than a hundred popular students for the jury venire, so it is not difficult to account for the size of the audience. The trial lasted almost two hours, but scarcely a person left until the verdict of the jury was brought in a half-hour later.

Most teachers are familiar with the use of individual projects so not much space will be given to this method. The field of sociology is so broad that it is an easy matter to find a wide range of topics and it is possible to allow the student a great deal of latitude in choosing his subject. The projects may be themes, scrapbooks, original drawings, charts, or graphs. Among the best ones handed in were: Original drawings and descriptive material on "The Evolution of Man"; Marriage Customs in Many Lands; The Automobile and Society; The Radio and Society; The Telephone and Society; The Hickman Case; and dolls dressed in the costumes of foreign lands. Not only were many of the projects expressive of the

individual differences in the students, but they served their purpose in the school exhibit, and as an inspiration to later classes.

In conclusion I wish to describe in some detail two surveys made in Waukegan Township High School. The first was a study of the nationalities in our school and the communities represented. Waukegan is an industrial community, as is North Chicago, which adjoins it on the South. After considerable work and thought, a question-blank was prepared and submitted to the entire student body of two thousand in the home rooms, asking them to tell their own birthplace, that of their parents and grand-parents, and of their great-grand-parents, if they could go back that far. Very few of the children were foreign-born, but to our surprise we found that half the parents were alien-born and two-thirds of the grand-parents, representing in all almost a League of Nations. The average number of years of residence of the foreign-born parents was from twenty-five to thirty years. Another interesting fact brought to light was that a very large per cent. of the families had moved into the community during the preceding fifteen years, showing a definite trend to the industrial city. Needless to say, this was an easily motivated study of the immigration and Americanization problem.

A second survey was made in the winter of 1930 to find out the social practices and attitudes of the students and the number gainfully occupied during the school year; what occupations they were following, and how much of their time was so spent. The question blank was prepared and tried in the class, the support of the teachers was enlisted, and then, without previous notice, each student was asked to fill out the blank in the home room, with his name at the top. The tabulations were first made by classes, the blanks for the girls being kept separate from those of the boys, then the figures for the whole school were put together on a master sheet. Never have I worked with a group so vitally interested in a project, for, after the first tabulation, it was impossible to use more than four to six students at a time, and there were always twice as many volunteers as could be used. We labored as late as five-thirty, almost three hours after the close of our school day,

on several occasions, in order to get the task finished. It was a revelation to the teachers and the townspeople to find that nearly half the students were working part-time, putting in from fifteen to twenty-five hours per week. Nearly fifty per cent. of the girls who were employed reported that they were doing domestic work, either housework or caring for children. Twice as many girls belonged to social groups as boys, demonstrating the fact that social life appeals more to them. Sports were the hobbies of ninety per cent. of the pupils, though a large number preferred art or music. Another surprising fact brought out was that they were not dance or movie-crazy, for more than twenty per cent. said they did not dance at all and only five per cent. attended movies more often than once a week. That our survey was of more than local interest was shown by the appearance of an article about it in the *Chicago Tribune* and a request for a copy of the blank from Racine High School. At our request, New Trier High School submitted similar blanks and allowed us to tabulate the results. The comparison was most interesting, as their students come from highly restricted residence suburbs of Chicago. Ninety per cent. of their students attend college, while only twenty-five per cent. of those in Waukegan High School go to institutions of higher learning. Less than twenty per cent. were employed, and consequently a much larger group had leisure and the liking for social activities in and out of school. The students of both schools were about equally interested in the sport program offered, about half of them showing a preference for swimming and ice-skating.

Sociology is not recommended to those students who are planning to attend college, mainly because so far the colleges have not seen fit to recognize it as a "solid," hence few of the more able students elect this course. This is really the best possible justification for offering it, for those going to college can take more extensive courses in sociology there, but for those who are planning to enter some vocation on leaving high school it supplies at least a working knowledge of our major social problems, which is of considerable value to them as citizens and to the community in which they are to live.

A Home-Made Museum

BY JENNIE L. PINGREY, HASTINGS-ON-THE-HUDSON, N. Y.

If you want to have a home-made museum the first step is to choose the right sort of principal—one who will co-operate with you by helping you secure a suitable room, equipment, and materials, and then leave you free to work with them, trusting that you really have a worthy object in mind. There are such principals—may their tribe increase!

But, of course, you might not want a home-made museum. I do, because I like to work with things as well as people, because I like objects at hand to illustrate what we are studying—a soap sphinx links us to the distant past, the clay figure of a knight

evokes the holy paganism of the crusades, a silk clad Queen Elizabeth holds her head as disdainfully as an eight-inch body will allow—and I want a museum because so many of my pupils like these things. "Silly nonsense," you may say of a model of an Egyptian razor. "What does it matter whether the Egyptians shaved or not?" It probably doesn't matter any more than it matters whether the Eskimos shave, but the former information is more valuable, to all except the purveyors of razors and shaving creams, because it helps to make vivid a race who helped to develop the culture we have inherited.

"These do not help pupils to pass the final examination," you might urge, practically, pointing to a peep theatre of a Venetian scene, or a wooden model of a guillotine. Now I believe they do help pupils to pass their exams, not only those whose careful execution has served to impress the memory of the maker by a process more interesting than written or oral repetition, but the observers whose imaginations are stimulated by such illustration. But I am less interested in securing passing grades than I am in awakening some conception of the parade of the past which has brought us so far in civilization.

If you do want a home-made museum, it is desirable, though by no means necessary, to have a room equipped with a lavatory, tables, desks and shelves to work on, and cupboards. The lavatory is useful for moistening clay and diluting paint, as well as for cleaning all traces of manual labor from the laborers and the room. The tables, desks, and shelves should be convenient work places—movable desks and chairs are desirable. There should be glass-covered cupboards for display purposes, and others with wooden doors for holding materials and tools.

The materials and tools are varied. We have used: modeling wax, powdered clay, dowels, clothespins, soap, sponges, cardboard boxes, drawing paper, sandpaper, paint, crayons, paste, and dolls. To shape these materials we have used knives, scissors, brushes, mixing pans, rulers, et cetera.

Of course the time when such work is done depends on the size of the class and the general program for school work. Once I was blessed with a little class of nine and we built a Roman house in class, even to painting the corrugated paper on the roof red. But with a class of forty, I find it inadvisable to do much in class; for these I give out special assignments about once a month, usually as part of a review before a test on a period's work, but not always then, lest hand-work become associated with tests. At such times I read long lists of possibilities—for instance, on the first period in ancient history: a sandpaper or clay model of a pyramid, a relief map of the ancient east, dress a small doll in ancient Egyptian costume, collect the materials for an Egyptian laborer's meal, make a soap model of a Nile boat, draw a cartoon or series of cartoons illustrating what Egyptian civilization has given the world, etc. The pupils are urged to substitute something original, similar to these. Those who wish to do so, may substitute oral for visual work by enacting scenes found in histories, or by writing their own dramatic skits. Presentation of appropriate musical numbers is also encouraged, but as yet none of my pupils has accepted this suggestion. For the few who prefer decorous drill to flights of fancy, I often prepare review exercises. This varied assignment may be prepared in the history room in vacant periods or at home. Classes differ immensely in response to such an assignment; some drag drearily along with tiresome repetitions of maps and honor rolls chosen as the easiest, while others sparkle with cunning models of sedan chairs, little soap coaches,

wooden flogging posts and other objects which delight me as much as the pupils. Most of the younger pupils like this sort of thing; many of the older ones do not, which is one of the reasons for doing this kind of work so much more in the ninth or tenth grade than in the two upper grades, the other reasons being the greater pressure for time in the latter, and the fact that the tenth grade ancient history is less related to experience. Occasionally a pupil will resent an assignment of hand-work. There was one over-age boy who told the principal that he'd rather not take my course in History A because of the silly things I had pupils do; I don't know who converted him—I never paid much attention to him—but near the end of the year he handed in the most perfect drawing of the delicate tracery of a Gothic window I have ever received.

Usually all such reproductions and creations are passed around the class for all to see and touch, and then arranged on an adjustable broad shelf for others who are in the room to see. Sometimes a special invitation to visitors is written on the study hall boards, but I don't do this so much as I did when we started the work. After a couple of days, the chairman of that particular section of our museum selects those objects which she thinks worth keeping, places them in the glass case, with flat drawings in portfolios, and returns or throws away other contributions. Two or three times a year, the museum committee cleans house, throwing out faded and disintegrated museum pieces, and rearranging the rest. Once in a while they may be called upon to escort a visiting parent, or a grade class in history, around the museum. The advisability of exhibits is a debatable question psychologically, I suppose. I hold them occasionally, but try not to stress too much the particular pupil who contributed each item.

Unless you consider this a serious objection, why not try a home-made museum and see if it doesn't have these results:

1. It makes history seem more real by the concrete representation of objects studied in class.
2. It emphasizes certain periods, such as the Golden Age of Athens or the Ancient Régime, by a definite emphasis upon them in a different way.
3. It gives boys and girls who want it a chance for the hand-work they like.
4. It helps to make the history room appear the interesting laboratory of man's past which it should be.

Bertha Willis, in "Industrial Geography," in the March issue of *School Science and Mathematics*, presents a series of exercises, used with three units, to arouse interest in the content materials read in connection with the units.

In the April issue of the same publication Helen A. Southgate, in "World Relations in a Geography Class," discusses the use of relationships with which the pupils come into daily contact, beginning "with the geography of the breakfast table," in order to understand the interdependence of peoples. Materials must be drawn from sources other than textbooks, and include magazines, commerce reports, and other similar materials.

Whither this World of Ours?

A Series of Motivated Units for a class in Modern History

BY REGINALD STEVENS KIMBALL, A. M., SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, BROOKFIELD, MASS.

When the class assembled on a day in September for the first day's lessons, the students found the history room gay with a display of flags, representing the important nations of the earth. On the walls hung a number of maps, some of the world, but more of Europe, showing the shifting boundaries. At the front of the room, a blackboard map of the world was unsightly with red splotches, labelled "DANGER SPOTS: Why Do These Hinder the World's Peace?" A number of placards exhibited the paper jackets of books recently added to the history section of the school library. On the table near the door, an attractive display of the most interesting of these new books and of those magazines which would be most useful to the student of modern history was set forth. The front of the teacher's desk was covered with oak tag, on which large headlines, clipped from the current newspapers, announced the coming meeting of the Assembly of the League of Nations and the problems that would confront it. At other points in the room, bulletin boards displayed views of important cities or scenic spots in various parts of the world.

Knowing that there was always something unusual in this teacher's room, the class had assembled well in advance of the time set for the opening of the morning's work. The pupils had ample time to examine the display before the class was called to order. Thus, the teacher found at once that the pupils were full of questions about some of the newspaper clippings or scenes. Building upon a previous acquaintance with all of the members of this course, the teacher guided a preliminary discussion of the salient points of interest. Copies of *World News*, the current-events paper selected for use in connection with the course, and of *The World Remapped*, by R. Baxter Blair (Dennoyer-Geppert) were distributed to each student. The remainder of the period was devoted to a brief discussion of the matters on the League's agenda. At the close of the period, each pupil took with him for consideration before the next meeting of the course a mimeographed sheet on which were reproduced the list of problems confronting the world set forth by Isaiah Bowman in his book, *The New World*.

By the next meeting of the class, two days later, the Assembly of the League was in session. It seemed natural that the students, in order to understand its workings better, should dramatize the Assembly, each choosing a nation to represent, so far as the number in the class would allow. Under the teacher's guidance, the European nations were chosen first, then China and Japan, and then the Central and South American countries were grouped as of less importance in the course as it would be developed. Each pupil was allowed to select his own

country, either on the basis of family ties or of personal interest. It was suggested that the order of selection be determined by the relative standing of the students in the work in history for the previous year. (If this were to be done again, I should think it wise to invert the order, giving the less able students the first choice, before the more striking opportunities had gone.) As soon as the dramatization was under way, some of the students suggested that the class might offer to put on the production at the morning assembly, for the benefit of the other students in the school. Here was an added incentive to get the most out of the work.

Having portrayed the current Assembly of the League, the members of the class found that they had unearthed some further problems which they wished to discuss. Consequently, each member set out, under the teacher's guidance, to investigate the geography and history of the country which he had selected as "his own." An outline based somewhat on the "Outline for the Study of a Nation" given in Tuell's *The Study of Nations* (Houghton Mifflin) was developed by the class and mimeographed in order that each pupil might have the guide at hand. The most-needed books and magazines were placed in the history room, to relieve pressure at the main library and to make possible more guidance from the teacher. Materials found in the daily papers and current magazines were brought in and posted on the bulletin board. The problem as to how to care for this material, which promised to be of value throughout the course was met by the class, a committee of three being responsible each week for filing the material in the vertical file which was added to the room's equipment. This file, thus made familiar to every member of the class in short order, proved one of the most popular sources of reference throughout the course.

There followed three weeks of intensive research on the part of each student. A few moments at the beginning of the hour were allowed for a general discussion of any point which seemed of particular value or general interest. The remainder of the time was spent in individual pursuit of facts, with the teacher at hand to give advice or steer students away from the less profitable material.

The material collected, the students were ready to organize it for use in the solution of their problems. After two periods spent in class on the general topic of how to outline materials gathered in the field of history, each student tried his hand at organizing his own material. A quarter of an hour's conference with the instructor was usually sufficient to whip the matter into shape. The writing of the reports, upon the suggestion of one of the students, took the form of preparing a booklet illustrating the points to be made. On the cover, an outline map

of the country, in solid color, was surmounted with a reproduction of the nation's flag. Original drawings and illustrations clipped from discarded magazines embellished the left-hand pages. At the right, ran the text of the report. By arrangement with the English department, the report was to be accepted as one of the required lengthy compositions, thus carrying double credit and justifying the spending of more time. The students had the advice of the English instructor as well as of the history teacher in expanding their outlines. Each pupil presented in class the introductory summary of his report. The booklets were filed away, accessible to every member of the class in case of need. Most of the oral reports were so interestingly given that the students were clamoring for turns at reading the complete stories.

A week was spent in listing and giving preliminary discussion to various problems which had grown out of the researches. Baffled by their lack of knowledge of the earlier general history of Europe, the students had at times been unable to understand the causes of some of the events the importance of which they recognized. Further, the story of the "danger spots" had not yet been uncovered in full. Recourse was had once more to Bowman's list of problems and tentative suggestions were made as to the means for solution. The class decided that an organized study of history would help to place some of these matters in the proper setting.

At this point, the teacher introduced the class to the textbooks which were to be used in the course. The students were divided into groups of three and each group received a copy of each of the three books which had been selected as texts (Hayes and Moon: *Modern History*; Robinson and Breasted: *Our Own Times*; and Hazen: *Modern European History*). The teacher suggested that by recourse to each of the books, the students would be somewhat surer of a good foundation for the conclusions which they wished to draw. A "tour" of each of the books served to introduce the various features—the table of contents, the marginal notes or paragraph headings, the questions for study, the bibliographies, the indexes, the maps and charts, and the general outlines. Thus, before leaving the classroom, each student felt that he knew how to proceed with the use of the books.

The transition from the living present to the dim, dim past was accomplished with more ease than even the fondest expectation could have hoped. A scant survey of ancient and medieval history, provided by two of the texts was amplified and clothed with meaning through a solution of the following questions, duplicated and presented to each student:

1. What are the three prime elements of modern civilization?
2. In what way were the barbarian invasions a "blessing in disguise"?
3. Trace some of the greatest problems of present-day Europe back to the feudal period.
4. One author says: "The gods of this age (i. e., the twentieth century) are the nations." Wells,

in his *Outline of History*, presents a similar view (one-volume edition, p. 961). What were the gods of the feudal age?

The questions were accompanied by a series of references to books by standard authors, readily available in the school library.

The outline finally worked out by the class to cover this period was as follows:

I. A. FROM DARKNESS TO LIGHT

1. Chaos and crucible: heritage from the middle ages.
 - a. Break-up of the Roman Empire.
 - b. Barbarian migrations and settlements.
 - i. Disappearance of classical civilization.
 - ii. Institution of a new order of affairs.
 - c. The new basis.
 - i. Variety of racial proportions.
 - ii. Formation of new languages.
 - iii. Foundation for modern peoples.
2. Filings to the magnet: nations yet unborn.
 - a. Feudal period.
 - i. Theory.
 - ii. Practice.
 - b. Gradual rise of nations.
 - i. Formation of nuclei.
 - ii. Absence of boundaries.
 - a) Natural.
 - b) Racial.
 - iii. Attempts at centralized governments.

At this point, the teacher supplied the class with an outline of the work which would have to be covered if all the facts needed for solution of the problems were to be at hand by the end of the year. These included:

- I. B. Mosaic patterns from scattered stones—the emergence of modern nations.
- II. A. New wines in old bottles—the political revolutions of the nineteenth century.
- II. C. The swing of the pendulum—the period of reaction.
- II. B. Fingers of steel—the industrial revolutions.
- III. A. "To the Uttermost Parts"—the period of colonization and business expansion.
- III. B. Skins of many colors—the white man's burden.
- IV. A. Sweet singers and stern facts—literature and philosophy of the nineteenth century.
- IV. B. Gilded figures in a crystal court—art, music, recreation.
- IV. C. Seers of visions—changes in social viewpoint.
- IV. D. World undreamed of—a glimpse at the progress in science.

The students were asked to list all of the important questions which had grown out of their reading and to submit them to a committee, which, under the teacher's guidance, would endeavor to group them under the above topics and present them in organized form for further deliberation. These topics, and the outlines which accompanied them, gave the following material, which was mimeographed and issued to the student at intervals of about once in two weeks during the remainder of the year:

I. B. MOSAIC PATTERNS FROM SCATTERED STONES

1. Chips from the quarry: the germs of nationhood.
 - a. Holy Roman empire.
 - i. Origin.
 - ii. Attempts to utilize.
 - iii. Effects on German and Italian states.
 - b. England.
 - c. France.
 - d. Spain.
 - i. The marches.
 - ii. Consolidation.

2. The cloister's shadow: the influence of religion.

- a. The Dutch revolt.
 - i. Religious situation.
 - ii. Foundations for modern states.
- b. Thirty years' war.
 - i. Scope.
 - ii. Results (Peace of Westphalia).

3. In full beauty arrayed: modern nations.

- a. Constitutional development in England.
- b. Autocracy.
 - i. France.
 - ii. Russia.
 - iii. Prussia.
- c. Land-grabbing: the partition of Poland.

For Thought and Research

1. Why should Germany and Italy have been so long without national governments? Explain the development of free institutions in England so far in advance of their appearance elsewhere in Europe.
2. What parallel can be found between these "religious wars" and the great war of 1914? Was the chief motive of these wars religious? If not, what? How, then, do you justify the title applied to them?
3. In what ways does autocracy afford greater privileges and possibilities than democracy can ever hope to offer? In what respects it is inferior to democracy? "Europe is in a constant state of unstable equilibrium, of which now one, now another, ambitious man tries to take advantage." What possible solution is there? Will Briand's "United States of Europe" solve the difficulty? When does an "independent state" cease to be independent?

II. A. NEW WINE IN OLD BOTTLES

1. Strong, repulsive dregs (The French revolution).

- a. Causes.
 - i. Inherent in government.
 - ii. Increasing enlightenment.
- b. Attempts at popular government (reasons for failure of each).
- c. Foreign complications.
 - i. Cause: endeavor to spread propaganda.
 - ii. Results.
 - a) Immediate.
 - b) Ultimate.
- d. The aftermath: the career of Napoleon.
 - i. Analysis of Napoleon's character.
 - ii. Rise to power.
 - iii. Creation of the empire.
 - iv. Military campaigns.
 - a) During the directory and consulate.
 - i) Italy.
 - ii) Egypt.
 - b) During the empire.
 - i) Anti-coalition.
 - ii) Continental.
 - c) The hundred days.
 - v. Reconstruction.
 - a) Administrative reforms: *code Napoleon*.
 - b) Reorganization of old states and creation of new.

2. Later revolutionary activities.

- a. Rise of secret societies throughout Europe.
- b. Overthrow of Spanish empire: colonial revolts.
- c. French revolutions.
 - i. Revolution of 1830.
 - ii. Revolution of 1848.
 - a) Downfall of Louis Philippe.
 - i) Unpopularity of ministers.
 - ii) Rise of socialism.
 - b) Second republic.
 - i) National workshops.
 - ii) Election of Louis Napoleon.
 - iii) The *coup d'état*.

- c) Second empire (failure due to aggressive foreign policy).
- d. Conditions in the Austrian empire.
 - i. Liberal agitations.
 - ii. Movements toward racial autonomy.
 - iii. Hungarian revolt (Kossuth).
 - iv. Bohemian murmurings.
- e. Risings in Germany.
 - i. Granting of constitution in Prussia.
 - ii. Proposals of Frankfort parliament.
 - iii. Hostility of Austria.

For Thought and Research

1. Compare the inability of the French to find a working form of popular government with the difficulties recently reported from Russia.
2. Note the feeling of reactionary governments to anything resembling liberalism.
3. Show that unwarranted license frequently follows in the train of undue repression.
4. Would the same sort of situation as that which produced Napoleon produce another such leader?
5. Why was the hotbed of revolutionary activities situated as it was?

II. B. THE SWING OF THE PENDULUM

1. Setting the clock back: The congress of Vienna.

- a. Composition.
 - i. Leaders (give characteristics).
 - a) Metternich.
 - b) Talleyrand.
 - ii. Nations (give aspirations).
 - b. Tasks.
 - i. Undoing of Napoleon's work.
 - ii. Reconstruction of map of Europe.
 - iii. Reinstatement of principle of legitimacy.
 - iv. Prevention of revolutionary recurrences.
 - c. Accomplishments.
 - i. As to rulers.
 - ii. As to boundaries.
2. In need of rewinding.
 - a. The policy of Metternich.
 - i. Armed intervention (Troppau, Laibach, Verona).
 - ii. Frequent conferences (culminating at Aix-la-Chapelle).
 - b. Alliances.
 - i. Quadruple alliance.
 - a) Purpose.
 - b) Composition.
 - c. Results.
 - ii. "Holy" alliance.
 - (Subtopics as under i).

For Thought and Research

1. The period now under consideration bears many strong resemblances to the years just following the great war of 1914. Make the parallel.
2. Why was it impossible for the arbitrations at Vienna to be permanent?
3. Justify Metternich's attitude toward revolution.
4. What significance had the "Holy" alliance to the western hemisphere?
5. What lesson can be drawn from Talleyrand's experiences?
6. In your opinion, which man accomplished most:
 - a. Metternich or Talleyrand? Why?
 - b. Metternich or Napoleon? Why?
 - c. Talleyrand or Napoleon? Why?
 - d. Any one of these three and any leader of 1918-1930?

II. C. FINGERS OF STEEL

1. The strength of the grip: nature and importance of the industrial revolution.
2. The old iron clasp: a comparison of the domestic system with the new.
 - a. Manufacture of thread.
 - b. Loom-weaving.
 - c. Location of factories.

- d. Relation of capital and labor.
- e. Summary.
 - i. Advantages.
 - ii. Disadvantages.
- 3. The spread of the fingers: nature of inventions.
 - a. Machinery.
 - i. Spinning and weaving.
 - ii. Cotton gin.
 - iii. Steam engine: application to machines—1769.
 - iv. Improvements in manufacture of iron and steel.
 - b. Transportation.
 - i. Steamboat—1807.
 - ii. Locomotive—1814.
 - c. Communication.
 - i. Telegraph.
 - a) Land and air lines.
 - b) Ocean cables.
 - ii. Telephone.
- 4. The impress of the grasp: consequences.
 - a. Economic.
 - i. Concerning production.
 - a) Decrease in cost.
 - b) Increase in amount.
 - ii. Concerning consumption: increase.
 - iii. Concerning industry and commerce: expansion.
 - iv. Concerning labor: subdivisions and intensive specialization.
 - b. Social.
 - i. Increase in population.
 - ii. Growth of cities.
 - a) Migration from rural districts.
 - b) Development of slums.
 - c) Increase in unsanitary conditions.
 - iii. Class problems.
 - a) Decrease in independence of laborer.
 - b) Use of women's and children's labor.
 - c) Unemployment.
 - iv. Intellectual effects (to be considered under IV. B).
 - c. Political.
 - i. Influence of classes in governments.
 - a) Demands of capitalists.
 - b) Demands of labor.
 - ii. Rise of new theories (to be considered under IV. C).

For Thought and Research

1. Try to depict in a few hundred words what our life to-day might be like were it not for the inventions and changes in custom brought about by the industrial revolution.
2. Take some one element in our modern life; follow it back to its source in the industrial-revolutionary era; show what objections were raised to it at that time and whether later developments have proved the folly or wisdom of opposition.

III. A. "TO THE UTTERMOST PARTS"

1. General consideration of problems of European expansion.
 - a. Territorial problems—desire for land, because of
 - i. Overpopulation in Europe.
 - ii. Agricultural necessities.
 - b. Economic problems—need of outlets for manufactures (and a).
 - c. Social problems—ambition for cultural expansion.
2. Fruitful attempts at expansion of power.
 - a. Darkest Africa.
 - i. Exploration and its results.
 - a) The work of Livingstone and Stanley.
 - b) Belgium's services.
 - c) Institution of slavery.
 - ii. Scramble for territory.
 - a) Means of obtaining titles.
 - b) Deliberations of congress of Berlin.
 - c) Final partition (Was it final?).
 - iii. The resulting situation.
 - a) Rivalry over possessions, due to
 - (i) Lack of natural boundaries.

- (ii) Necessity for extensive development.
- (iii) Comparative extent of colonial empires.
- b) Later disputes over holdings.
- b. The far east.
 - i. Japan.
 - a) Relations with Russia.
 - (i) Russian designs on Korea.
 - (a) Construction of trans-Siberian railway.
 - (b) Consolidation of Russian interests.
 - (ii) The Russo-Japanese war ("The bear and the mosquito").
 - (a) Japanese control of the sea.
 - (b) Siege of Port Arthur.
 - (c) Mukden campaign.
 - (d) Battle in Sea of Japan.
 - (iii) Results.
 - (a) Results of war: treaty of Portsmouth (terms).
 - (b) Japanese interests in China (see b), below).
 - (c) Japanese "Monroe doctrine."
 - b) Relations with China.
 - (i) Policy of continental expansion, and interest in Korea.
 - (ii) Chino-Japanese war.
- ii. China.
 - a) Western spheres of influence.
 - b) Civilization's banes and blessings.

For Thought and Research

1. Why are African colonies expensive luxuries?
2. Has western civilization justified itself in its relations with Africa and the Orient?
3. On what grounds can Japan's treatment of China be justified? How many of these same grounds would justify Russia's attempted treatment of Japan?

III. B. SKINS OF MANY COLORS

1. Colonial revival.
 - a. Causes.
 - i. Economic.
 - a) Exploitation.
 - (i) Goods.
 - (ii) Capital.
 - b) Importation—raw materials.
 - ii. Patriotic—desire to lead.
 - iii. Altruistic—motives for religious and social betterment.
 - b. Results—new outburst of imperialism.
2. Special phases.
 - a. Great Britain.
 - i. "Unconscious" growth.
 - ii. Necessity for imperialism.
 - iii. Steps to world power.
 - a) Control of Suez Canal—1875.
 - b) Reopening of Turkish question—1876-1880.
 - c) Assumption of imperial dignity (India)—1877.
 - d) Proof of colonial loyalty—1897.
 - e) Success in South African war—1899.
 - iv. Evaluation of British rule.
- b. Germany.
 - i. Pan-German expansionist policy.
 - ii. Peaceful commercial expansion.
 - a) Foreign monopolies.
 - b) Difficulties.
 - iii. Mittel-Europa project.
- c. France.
 - i. Necessity for expansion.
 - ii. Advantages of geographical situation.
- d. Italy.
 - i. Type of colonial possessions.
 - ii. Imperial aspirations.
- e. Austria.
 - i. Desire for Balkans.
 - ii. Need of integration.
- f. Russia.
 - i. Need of outlets.

- ii. Pan-Slavic project.
- g. Turkey—the "sick man of Europe."
- h. Other continents (See III. A. for details to be included here).

For Thought and Research

1. Show that the aspirations of any two nations mentioned above would almost inevitably lead to conflict between them.
2. Show where the "white man's burden" has been heaviest and where he has fulfilled his duties most faithfully.
3. What has preserved Turkey's existence in Europe?
4. Show that all international difficulties may be traced to economic causes. Is this strictly true?
5. Has every nation a right to adopt a policy of expansion? Is it always expedient to do so?

IV. A. SWEET SINGERS AND STERN FACTS

Note that this syllabus does not purport to consider the contributions of individual authors, or to interpret fully the trend of literary development in single nations. The wide view taken here is for the purpose of co-ordinating various acquisitions and applying them from the historian's standpoint.

1. General characteristics: period of complete genius.
 - a. Individual perfection without isolation.
 - b. Outburst of creative power.
 - i. Distribution among leading nations.
 - ii. Common traits.
 - a) Inspiration.
 - b) Purpose.
 - c. New spirit of freedom, exemplified

in	by
i. Germany	Lessing
ii. France	Victor Hugo
iii. England	Wordsworth
iv. Russia	Turgueniev, Tolstoi
 - d. Influence of historic spirit (social-mindedness).
 - i. Chronicles.
 - a) Historical novels—Scott, Victor Hugo, Thackeray.
 - b) Historical works—Gibbon, Montesquieu.
 - ii. Agents; historical impulse for transformation of the present.
 - a) Martial exploits of Byron.
 - b) Social (or anti-social) endeavors of Shelley.
 - e. Love of nature.
 - f. Growth of scientific spirit in literature (Appreciation of force of organized knowledge in framing and inspiring life).
 - g. Creation of new standards in art.
 - h. Thought and activity.
 - i. Philosophy.
 - ii. Social.
2. National contributions.
 - a. Germany.
 - i. Literature.
 - ii. Music.
 - iii. Philosophy.
 - b. France.
 - i. Lyric and reflective poetry.
 - ii. Fiction.
 - iii. Drama.
 - c. England.
 - i. Poetry.
 - ii. Novel.

For Thought and Research

1. Show the influence of the industrial revolution on some one or more of the important authors of the nineteenth century.
2. Trace the connection between the love of nature and the spirit of scientific inquiry or the spirit of brotherhood.
3. Show that the historical and scientific spirits exhibited during this period sprang from the same roots.

IV. C. SEERS OF VISIONS

1. Socialism: "The possession (or at least the control) of capital and all means of production by the community,

in the interests of the whole body of workers."

- a. General characteristics.
 - i. Revolutionary character.
 - ii. Indictment of capitalistic system.
 - iii. Attitude toward life.
 - iv. Proposed goal.
- b. Types.
 - i. Utopian socialists (Saint-Simon, Louis Blanc, Charles Fourier) and Associationists (Robert Owen, William Thompson).
 - ii. Marxian ("scientific") socialism (Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels).
 - a) "Communist manifesto."
 - b) Philosophy.
 - (i) Materialistic interpretation of history.
 - (ii) Class struggle.
 - (iii) Surplus value.
 - (iv) Inevitability of socialism.
 - (v) Internationalism of workers.
 - iii. State socialism (Karl Rodbertus and Ferdinand Lassalle).
 - iv. Christian socialism.
 - v. "Revisionists" (Eduard Bernstein).
 - vi. Fabians (Sidney Webb, H. G. Wells).
- c. Political outgrowths.
 - i. Socialist "international," 1864.
 - ii. Social Democratic Labor party.
 - iii. Gotha program.
 - iv. Erfurt program.
 - v. Labor party, 1906.
 - vi. Attitude toward militarism and war (cf. World War of 1914).
2. Anarchism.
 - a. Meaning of the word.
 - i. By derivation.
 - ii. In general usage.
 - b. Leading exponents (Pierre-Joseph Proudhon and Michael Bakunin).
3. Syndicalism.
 - a. Rise.
 - b. Aims.
 - c. Attitudes.
 - i. Industrial unionism.
 - ii. General strike.
 - iii. Sabotage.
4. Women's rights.
 - a. Feminist movement.
 - b. Suffragettes.
 - c. Women in World War.
 - d. Present political status of women.
5. Temperance and prohibition.
6. Child welfare.

The last of the topics gave an opportunity to investigate and present some of the outstanding accomplishments in the various fields of science. It showed a sharp contrast to the visionary efforts in the political and social realm.

To round out the course, each student wrote a paper entitled "A Peep into the Future," in which he endeavored to portray his idea of what the world would be like a generation, a century, or a millennium hence. The Bowman questions were again considered, at the end of the course, and some light was seen to have been thrown upon nearly all of them. "But," as one of the pupils suggested, "if those big fellows in the League don't know how to settle these affairs, what can we hope to do?" The class agreed that an intelligent following of later developments would be necessary if the students were to continue the attempt at solving the questions.

What had been gained from such a course? Much time had been consumed at the outset on material

that is not ordinarily included in a course in modern history. Was this time lost or taken at the expense of the expected subject-matter? The consideration of the full working of the course should serve to show that this time spent in greasing the machinery led to a much smoother running of the wheels, which ground exceedingly swift as the course progressed. At the end of the year, each student had acquired:

1. The habit of turning to current publications for the "last word" on pressing problems, coupled with a growing respect for reliable as against entertaining or flashy periodicals.
2. An appreciative acquaintance with the pressing problems of the modern world and of *each* of the nations which play a part in its affairs.
3. A knowledge, intimate and effective, of the contents of three of the best secondary school texts in modern history. (The books had been put to use rather than studied as a stint.)
4. Constant practice in the assimilation of historical materials, through gathering, classifying, outlining, and expanding.
5. Visual association, through the class use of maps, charts, and other illustrations, and through individual efforts in connection with

the preparation of the national pamphlets and the students' notebooks.

6. Skill in preparing and giving both oral and written reports.
7. Ability at debate, both in the open forum of the class and in set debates which grew out of some of the arguments.
8. Further development of dramatization, through the preparation of scenes portraying meetings of the League's Assembly and of various other historic meetings or episodes.
9. Growing acquaintance with the best books in many fields, especially travel, political thought, historical fiction, literature, and the like.

The class had not been another year of weary grinding out of so many pages per day, but had been a living, working laboratory in which each student bore his part as an active contributor. Each gave of his talents in proportion to his ability, and thus was exemplified

10. True co-operation, respected leadership and considerate followership, the most important attributes of a citizen in a representative democracy like ours.

Vitalizing the Teaching of Ancient History

BY EDNA C. HUMMER, HIGH SCHOOL, EAST ORANGE, N. J.

In this age when so much is said about projects and socialized recitations, and the importance of teaching boys and girls,—not merely subject-matter, what are we doing to add interest to a subject whose very name is uninteresting? Do we make the ancients really live again? Is a permanent interest created in the classics, an interest which will effect the pupil's choice of reading and his later school life, and which will make him remember Ancient History after his school days are over? Or are we still teaching only facts and dates? There are college entrance examinations for which to prepare so that facts must be studied, but they, too, may be vitalized. The following description of a few experiences and projects is given in the hope that it may prove helpful to other teachers.

I

We have just returned from our annual pilgrimage to the Metropolitan Museum of Art. Three bus loads of us went, including a few mothers who acted as teacher assistants. We all met one afternoon after school to outline everything which we expected to see at the museum. A plan of the building was drawn on the blackboard and all the sections numbered, such as, Section I to the left—Early Greek and Cretan. Here look for the Vapphio cups, page 85 in the textbook; for King Minos' throne, page 86; the Lion Gate at Mycenae, page 89, etc. Thus we went through the entire book picking out the pages and writing down everything in a little improvised notebook given to each pupil to be taken to the mu-

seum. Each one was required to mark off the subjects on the lists as found, and on the blank pages provided write down any interesting things he had found that were not on our lists.

In the course of the afternoon a thousand and one questions must be answered and directions given. "I can't find the section from the Arch of Titus with the seven-branched candlestick from Jerusalem!" One pupil was overheard to say, "The last time I was in this place I was bored to death, now I can't see enough!" They really went, not to look at, but to look into; and they were thrilled.

II

One year we prepared an exhibit for "open night" which filled the entire classroom. Nearly all of the work on this was done after school, for freshmen are untiring in their desire to create. We made large scrapbooks labelled: "Egypt and the Middle States," "Greece and Rome." These were filled with clippings and pictures from newspapers or magazines in regard to excavations and events in these countries today.

Large posters were made with the heading: "Ancient History in Advertising." A Colgate advertisement with a picture of Scipio Africanus, most elegant gentleman of his time, and the quotation: "The younger Africanus was the first who adopted the custom of shaving every day."—Pliny's Natural History, Book 7, Chapter 59, surely adds a human interest to a military hero. Then there were the following: Hart, Schaffner, and Marx picturing Nero—

"He was a famous night club fan, but he couldn't get by the doorman in that outfit today"; Diogenes with his lantern looking for the man who does not use the blades men swear by and not at; Antony crying out over the microphone, "Lend me your ears!"—when Cleopatra's boy friend wanted service he got it, etc.; and Elgin's stories on "Time," with illustrations from Alexander the Great and Hannibal. All of this material was collected by pupils, and mounted on cardboard by them after school.

There were posters with the heading: "Wise Cracks on Ancients." The American contractor's wife standing before the Coliseum, "How do you account for this mess, Jim?"

"Either non-union labor or cheap construction."

The society lady with her lorgnette before the Laöcoon group, "I can see that they are firemen, but why are they so tangled up in the hose?"

Finerty in the museum, looking first at Venus de Milo and then at the Thinker, pointing to Venus and addressing her brawny neighbor, "Ya may have been a bit rough with her, young feller, but still and all a man has got to be master in his own house!"

Janus making a lot of money singing for double-faced records!

In addition to these were many ivory soap creations of the Parthenon, Pantheon, arches, scarabs, triremes with flat tooth-picks for oars, Discus Thrower, Dying Gaul, etc. Boys made fine wooden working models of catapults, ballistas, and "tabulæ." These were made from cigar boxes covered with wax on which was written with a stylus in Latin one of Cicero's letters. Modeling clay was used to make a peristyle, and various forms of relief maps were made of plaster-of-paris, soaked newspapers, or a flour-salt-and-water mixture. Some pupils chose topics which particularly interested them, such as, "Religion," or "Architecture," and made diagrams illustrating their topics in connection with all the nations beginning with Egypt. These were all made at home and brought to class.

III

Another year, each division published a book trying to outrival the other classes. They elected their own board-of-editors, including editor-in-chief, and editors for society news, sports, ads, literature, art, etc. Titles were chosen for these books such as: "Roma Antiqua," "S P Q R," and "Nuntius Romanus." Covers were designed and all material type-written by pupils who had machines at home. The editor-in-chief wrote the foreword, choosing his own topic,—for example: "What Ancient History Means to Me," "Our Motive," and "The Importance of Ancient History." Some of the society notes and sporting columns were interesting, as were also the cartoons.

"Lucius Cassius and his family have just moved to their new villa on the outskirts of Rome. A large banquet will be given shortly in honor of his friend, Cornelius, a Spanish gentleman, who has just secured

full citizenship as a result of twenty years' service under the eagles."

"For evening affairs women are powdering their hair with gold. With a gold-bordered stola worn slightly longer this season, it makes a charming combination."

"Play by play announcement of the big gladiatorial fight. This is station SPQR, Rome's large arena, the Circus Maximus, broadcasting, etc."

Among literary achievements were bedtime stories, biographies, and poems, humorous or otherwise.

THE CHARIOT RACE

The horses, standing in place,
Await the start of the race.
The people, looking eagerly on,
See how in a flash they are gone.
The feet of the horses seem to fly
At the sound of the spectators' cry.
Gracefully, swiftly, they swerve
'Round the end of the dangerous curve.
Some slide and skid to the ground
While others, more fortunate, go 'round.
And, so be they enemy or friend,
They gallantly fight to the end,
Joyfully taking their places
In other chariot races.

CAESAR

He beat Pompey in Greece one day.
It was a terrible fight.
But Cæsar was a general
And Pompey was a sight!

SOCRATES

In days of old, when Greeks were bold,
There lived a man named Socrates.
He was so wise, he thought his eyes
Could see beyond the fair blue skies.
Indeed, I say, for his young day
His thoughts were far ahead.
He thought of what and too what not
Of after life when we are dead.

As for himself, he with an elf
In size would fairly mate.
His face was fat, his nose was flat,
His head a balded pate, etc.

Advertisements disclosed a clever appreciation of Roman life.

TRAVEL

See

Gaul, Spain, Britain, Asia

Explore the mysteries of far-away lands in
a luxurious litter held by

CHAMPION SMOOTH-PACED CAPPADOCIAN
SLAVES

"BEST IN THE LONG RUN"

MARS GLADITORIAL SCHOOL

A little school for big boys
All types of fighting taught
Produces only the best

BARGAINS IN SLAVES NOW

Every type desired
Greeks, Egyptians, Arabs, Teuton and many others
Roman Slave Traders, Inc.
Rome, Italy
Branches in principal cities
ASK THE MAN WHO OWNS ONE

IV

Another year when Margaret Anglin appeared in Sophocles' "Electra" at the Metropolitan Opera House, and a group of Hamilton College players gave Plautus' "Aulularia" at Hunter College, we produced for ourselves both a Greek tragedy and a Roman comedy. After reading through several to find those suited both in interest and context for young boys and girls, we chose Sophocles' "Antigone" and Plautus' "Captivi." These were shortened in many places where their long classic lines were burdensome. The parts were memorized and many after-school rehearsals were held. Costumes were made by the girls for most of the Greeks, while the high school costume closet offered many tunics and bordered togas for Roman slaves and gentlemen. One boy, who had his own printing press, invited a few helpers and produced quantities of programs which were rolled into scrolls, tied with embroidery floss in our school colors, and passed out to our guests by slaves who carried them on flat baskets.

Our performances were given after school to an audience of parents and fellow students. To receive letters of commendation from college-trained parents, who were present, created a feeling of reward and satisfaction for all the time spent in developing the project. In fact, when immediate results do not seem forthcoming after hours of effort, the unselfish teacher must ever bear in mind the saying of old: "Cast thy bread upon the waters: for thou shalt find it after many days."

V

Recently we have extended our course in Ancient History to include the Middle Ages. Now our classes are engaged in making reference books that will be of use to students in succeeding years. Sheets of paper were passed out in all divisions, having different headings such as: "Invasions of Barbarians," "Feudalism," "Mohammedanism," "Crusades," "Church and State in the Middle Ages," "English Law Courts," "Art and Architecture in the Renaissance," etc.

Pupils signed up under the topics which most interested them, and to which they were willing to make contributions. Then a chairman was chosen on each topic in each division, whose duties were to make lists of every possible phase of the subject on

hand, to meet with the other chairmen, and to see that every one on his team was kept busy. The chairman scoured the high school library and city library for bibliographies, fiction as well as non-fiction. Each reference was examined by the team to decide whether it should be included. Maps have been made showing routes of crusades, countries in which Mohammedanism prevails today, etc.; phases not fully treated in our textbook.

One girl discovered that the gardener, whom she thought to be colored, was really an Arab and a Mohammedan. She persuaded him to write down prayers from the Koran in Arabic. A boy found among regular Saturday religious notices in a New York newspaper a call to prayer of all Mussulmans in America. The newspapers have furnished many clippings on the Mohammedan-Jewish trouble in Palestine and the more recent Hindu-Mohammedan situation in India. Another subject was the Mohammedan connections with the "Alhambra" read in English I. Other students are tracing the influence of the Church and feudalism in "Ivanhoe," recently read in English I. Our collection of illustrations is already immense, and it has been supplemented with snapshots taken during trips abroad.

VI

This brings us to the sixth and last topic. If you wish to make Ancient History live, not only for your pupils but for yourself, by all means take a trip through the countries studied. The bugbear of heat sounds worse than it really is. The sands of the desert are hot, but there is always a breeze; we slept under blankets in July on the desert a few miles from the Great Pyramid. A pilgrimage through Palestine up to Damascus will take you from early Hebrew History, the Assyrian and Babylonian Captivities, Alexander the Great, Roman Conquest, the rise of Christianity, Mohammedanism, and the Crusades, right up to the Allenby Hotel, British war cemetery and present-day Zionist colonies.

Jerusalem is called the most cosmopolitan city, but Palestine contains not only all peoples but all stages of civilization. You see the oxen treading out the grain on the threshing floor of old Samaria, once the capital of Israel but now only a few hovels, alongside of the great ruins of a basilica of Herod the Great, with the remains of an amphitheatre on the adjoining hillside. The most stupendous Roman ruins of antiquity in Baalbek are alone worth the trip. As you approach Damascus, you are not surprised that Mohammed refused to enter, saying that one could not enter Paradise more than once. Making various stops on your way to Constantinople, you can imagine that you are part of Xerxes' fleet. Putting on and taking off the canal-boat-like slippers to enter the mosques got to be a habit, but the biggest treat of this sort was attending the regular Friday midday Mohammedan service at Sancta Sofia, Constantinople, the site of Justinian's early Christian Church, with its green marble columns from the Temple of Diana of Ephesus.

You will never fully appreciate Greek History until you have stood by the little Temple of Victory on the Acropolis of Athens and looked first at Mars Hill at your feet, where the old Areopagus met and Paul later preached; then, further to the Pnyx, where you can almost see Pericles; and farther in the distance to the road winding out toward Salamis. Nor will you ever fully appreciate Greek art until you have studied and walked over every foot of the Parthenon and Erectheum, and looked down at the immense columns of the Temple of Jupiter built later by Hadrian; or until you have climbed down the Propylæa steps to walk around the theatre of Dionysus and sit in the high priest's seat. Add to this a trip to Marathon and Eleusis. Time does not permit a longer description, but perhaps you will feel an urge to go if you have not already done so. Pu-

pils are thrilled with kodak or moving pictures which you take of these places, particularly if they can find you in the picture! These pictures can also be thrown on the screen.

This is not an exposition of theory, but a description of things which have been done. It has been written in the hope that by sharing our experiences we may be helpful to others. When the pupil is interested, he not only works harder, but remembers longer. The boy or girl who is not strong on book knowledge is delighted to find that he has talent for Ancient History along creative lines, which, in turn, makes the text easier. Appreciation of Greek, Roman, Saracen, or Teuton will live many years after the final examinations have been passed. After all we are teaching for the future rather than for the present.

An Approach to United States History in Senior High School

BY FORREST PAIGE, NEWTON HIGH SCHOOL, NEWTONVILLE, MASS.

WHY STUDY UNITED STATES HISTORY?

An attempt is made with the beginning class to instill in each individual the feeling that he or she has a real need for the subject about to be taken up. The objectives of the course are developed through a socialized discussion and formulated somewhat as follows:

1. An understanding and appreciation of the United States as it has developed and as it is today.
2. Development of an intelligent patriotism.
3. Development of a spirit of tolerance and fair play.
4. Training for citizenship.
5. Training for the use of leisure time.
6. Training in how to read and study effectively.

HOW TO STUDY

A lesson in the effective use of books. Attention is directed to the index, table of contents, paragraph headings, and footnotes, with suggestions for their use. It is surprising to find how few pupils really know how to use these aids. Occasionally a pupil is found in high school who is still unaware of their existence. In order to encourage independent study, pupils are gradually weaned from definite page assignments and put on their own for the solution of the problems. During the early part of the work page assignments are provided, but as pupils demonstrate the ability to proceed intelligently without teacher help they are given the opportunity. By the end of the year it is most gratifying to observe their approach to a problem. Brighter pupils not only find page assignments unnecessary, but do extremely well in the selection of reference material.

As an aid to the assimilation of material read, attention is called to the questions given at the end of chapters in most textbooks. Also to the chapter or

section summaries as in Beard and the orientation paragraphs in Fite (new edition). In connection with the special topic research which will be mentioned later, the special topic lists with references are discussed.

At this point pupils are ready to be given definite aid in how to study. A copy of study helps is provided each pupil and discussed, with the suggestion that this list be pasted on the inside of the notebook cover. Pupils are urged rather than required to observe these helps. Special work is done with them in cases of mal-adjusted pupils. Invariably it is found that a pupil who is not progressing satisfactorily in the work observes few, if any, of the helps. A little encouragement is often productive of a new start and gratifying work. The study helps follow:

STUDY HELPS

1. Have a regular time for study and form the habit of studying during that time.
2. Choose a quiet place where you can study without interruption. Have good light at your left, a straight chair, proper ventilation, and the necessary dictionary and reference books at hand.
3. Study with vigor and determination. Keep your mind on what you are studying. When actually tired, exercise or change your work.
4. Memorize the spelling and pronunciation of proper nouns used. It is helpful to divide difficult words into syllables, as Kos-ci-us-ko. Look up the pronunciation of words you are not familiar with in the dictionary.
5. Memorize dates which locate important events or introduce important periods. Some dates are necessary to give you a sense of time sequence. It is a good plan to keep a chart of important dates and events.
6. Locate on a map (maps in your books or wall maps in the classroom) the important places mentioned in your reading.
7. Try to understand rather than memorize what you study. Look up the meaning of words you do not know in the dictionary.
8. Listen carefully to the assignments. Make note of suggestions given for the preparation of the assignment.

These suggestions are given to help you, and will help if you allow them to.

9. In taking up a topic it is a good plan to read over the material rapidly first to get the story or general idea.

10. After grasping the general idea, go back over the topic, carefully and critically, this time searching for the facts that will help in the solution of your problems. Use the table of contents, index, and paragraph headings in this part of the work. Do not overlook footnotes! They contain most interesting and important information.

11. If the book you are using does not give the information you need, try another. Additional books are always available at the desk or in the school library. Your job is to solve the problems. Do not allow yourself to be satisfied with a job half done.

12. Form the habit of working independently. Ask for help only after having exhausted your own resources.

ORIENTATION

An orientation talk by the teacher in which the nature and general content of the course is presented. The work is divided into two major parts, (a) Required Minimal Essentials, and (b) Voluntary Enrichment or Project Work. The required Minimal Essentials are as follows:

1. Thorough preparation of assignments. The required work of the course is divided into seven units, with each unit divided into topics and sub-topics. Assignments consist of a series of problem questions for each topic and sub-topic of a unit. The questions are a mixture of fact and thought questions intended to develop an understanding of the material in the unit.

The General Outline:

- I. Discovery and settlement of America.
 - a. Discovery and Exploration of the Americas.
 - b. Colonization of North America.
- II. The Revolt of the British Colonies.
 - a. Expulsion of the French.
 - b. Colonial America.
 - c. The American Revolution.
- III. Organization of the United States.
 - a. Failure of the Articles of Confederation.
 - b. The Federal System of Government.
 - c. The Plan of Government of the United States.
 1. Legislative Department.
 2. Executive Department.
 3. Judicial Department.
 4. How the Plan of Government works.
 - d. The Success of the Constitution.
- IV. Development of the New Nation.
 - a. Jeffersonian Democracy.
 - b. The Reaction against Nationalism.
 - c. Jacksonian Democracy.
- V. Territorial Expansion and Sectional Strife.
 - a. Expansion to the Pacific.
 - b. Industrial and Social Progress.
 - c. The Planting System and National Politics.
 - d. The Triumph of Nationalism.
- VI. An Era of Industrial Development and National Growth.
 - a. Political Reconstruction.
 - b. Economic and Social Reconstruction.
 - c. The Rise of the West.
 - d. Domestic Problems.
- VII. The United States and World Power.
 - a. Foreign Relations of the United States.
 - b. The Roosevelt Era.
 - c. Progressive Democracy.
 - d. The World War and Problems of Peace.

When a new unit is taken up an orientation talk is given by the teacher, setting forth the general outline of the work, and an attempt is made to stimulate

interest in the unit. This procedure is repeated on a smaller scale when each main topic of a unit is undertaken. Following the orientation talk of each topic, the problem questions are given out for that topic. The questions are discussed briefly and suggestions given for their preparation. Pupils are then ready to proceed to their solution. The classroom becomes a laboratory with all possible books and other equipment at hand for the pupils' use. Pupils are at liberty to work in their own way. As the problem questions follow no single textbook and as their nature is such that reference reading is helpful, it becomes necessary for each pupil to use several books. Reference books, maps, and other necessary equipment are available in the classroom. Members of each class have two books, one "American Government," by Magruder, and the other a standard United States History text. During the past year three history textbooks were used in each class. The plan of using several texts in a class worked out very satisfactorily and is going to be continued.

2. Participation in Class Discussions. Following a period of directed laboratory work, varying in length with the nature of the topic being studied, pupils come together for a socialized discussion of their problems. Pupils rather than the teacher ask the questions, and in most cases pupils answer them. The teacher supplies information only when it cannot be obtained economically by the pupils or where there is an opportunity to inject an interesting sidelight. The time is devoted to a discussion of the problems on the topic which are especially interesting or especially perplexing to the pupils. Sometimes following and sometimes as a part of the general discussion, individual pupils or groups of pupils give reports on projects they have completed supplementing the unit being studied.

3. Included in the problems as a part of the required minimal essentials is a limited amount of map work and biography. In college preparatory classes this meets college board standards, whereas in non-college classes it is adapted to the needs and interests of the pupils involved.

4. Current History. A number of different methods of handling this part of the work have been tried. The most successful in non-college preparatory classes is the use of a current events paper adapted to the senior high level. In college preparatory classes in which intelligence is usually somewhat higher than non-college classes, a weekly magazine of the *Time* or *Literary Digest* type is used to good advantage. During a part of the year a current-history-day each week is designated and an entire period devoted to current history work. Constant effort is made to tie this material up with topics which have been or are being studied. The newspaper or magazine used is treated as a text. Useful and important articles are assigned in advance with questions on the articles provided. During the class period the assigned articles are discussed by the pupils. Following the general discussion, voluntary contributions are made by individual pupils on news

items of interest read by them either in the paper being used by the class or in other papers or magazines of recent vintage. Voluntary reading for pleasure is always encouraged. Occasionally time for this type of reading is provided during the current history period.

Pupils are held responsible for important current events presented in class. A quarterly current history test is given and in addition questions on important events discussed are included in the regular unit and final Minimal Essentials test.

During the part of the year when units VI and VII are being developed the current paper or magazine is used as a supplement to the unit work. At this time much use is also made of current monthly magazines, such as *Current History*, *Review of Reviews*, *Harper's*, etc. No special day is set aside for the work. It is fitted in whenever and wherever it can be done effectively. Pupils find such reading a help to them in working out the problems on the units as well as valuable for special topic research.

5. Examinations. At the completion of each main topic within a unit, a short quiz is given consisting of questions selected from the problem sheet of that topic. Occasionally the use of notebooks is allowed in these quizzes. Pupils are advised at the start of the course that a notebook is desirable as a depository for the problem sheets and for notes they will find it necessary to make on these problems. Also that occasionally they will be allowed to use the notebook for the quizzes; that a notebook is very helpful for reviewing; but that they will not be required to pass them in at any time. In some cases of pupils who do not progress satisfactorily with the work, special attention is directed to the notebook and it is kept for a time under the supervision of the teacher. In normal cases, however, where a pupil demonstrates the ability to handle the work satisfactorily, the matter of notebooks is left entirely to the individual.

At the completion of each unit a comprehensive examination is given. These examinations consist of several parts,—multiple choice, word or phrase, completion, and arrangement questions in group 1, and a few essay type questions in group 2 intended to test the pupil's understanding of the unit. At the completion of the course a minimal essentials examination is given as the final examination. This is similar in type to the unit examination, consisting in group 1 of multiple choice, word or phrase, completion and arrangement questions, and essay type questions in group 2 including one map question.

VOLUNTARY ENRICHMENT WORK

Pupils who demonstrate the ability to complete satisfactorily the minimal essentials are encouraged to undertake special project work. A pupil is not allowed, except in unusual cases, to take on this extra work unless the required work of the unit previously taken up was completed satisfactorily. There have been cases of extremely low intelligence where it was thought inadvisable to hold the pupils to the completion of the problems. In such cases as much

hand-work as possible is encouraged. Special projects may consist of any of the following:

1. Biography. Oral or written reports are given on the lives of persons who have played an important part in our economic, political or social history. The oral and sometimes the written reports are given to the class. "The Bibliography of American Biography for Secondary Schools," by Wilson and Wilson (McKinley Publishing Co.), will be found useful by teachers interested in this phase of the work. The publication mentioned contains a bibliography classified by periods and has a stimulating introductory chapter on Biography in the Teaching of History.

2. Special Topic Research. Oral or written reports on questions or problems of interest to the individual which supplement the material of the unit being studied. As the work is voluntary and as pupils select their own topics, interest is genuine and the work well done. Oral reports are in the nature of floor talks to the class. All pupils are held responsible for important information given in these talks. In many cases the talks prove helpful to the pupils in answering the problem questions. Questions on material covered by the talks are included in the unit tests.

3. Historical Fiction. Written and occasionally oral reports are given on accredited historical novels supplementing the material in the unit being studied. A list of books is given for each unit, but pupils are by no means confined to this list. Pupils who read historical novels as a part of their English work are encouraged to report on them for history. The teacher will find "Historical Fiction and Other Reading References for History Classes in Junior and Senior High Schools," by Hannah Logasa (McKinley Publishing Co.), an indispensable aid in this phase of the work.

4. Group Projects. Committee work such as the preparation and presentation of debates, pageants, entertainments, and the holding of elections at the time of local, state, and national elections, etc.

5. Construction of Models or other objects. Every possible encouragement is given to pupils who have the ability to make things. Girls enjoy dressing dolls to represent styles of the various periods in our history. Boys like to make models as of the first steamboat, early locomotives, etc. Pupils who have low "book quotients" are especially stimulated by this type of work.

6. Imaginative Accounts or Stories of Historical Events. Each topic taken up presents some event or incident to fire a pupil's imagination and bring forth a would-be literary masterpiece. This work may also be done in letter form or as a diary.

7. Drawing Pictures or Cartoons. Every class brings forth one or two individuals especially gifted for this type of work. Once the ability has been discovered, the matter of stimulation is easy. Much of the work is usually copied, but occasionally a pupil with originality emerges and delights in developing historical subjects. Posting worth-while creations on the bulletin board or otherwise making them avail-

able for class inspection arouses the interest and enthusiasm of all.

8. Construction of Charts or Graphs. The statistically minded pupils is provided an opportunity to present his material effectively. Presidential elections may be charted, population shifts depicted, fluctuation of the purchasing power of the dollar shown, the third party movement in our history plotted, etc. Good work is made available for pupil inspection by posting on the bulletin board.

9. Map Work. The writer has found that in general the quality of required map work is rather poor, whereas maps conceived and executed by pupils voluntarily are much superior. It is his practice, therefore, to require a minimum of such work, except in college preparatory classes, leaving the question of maps largely to the pupils themselves.

10. Scrapbooks. Every class has its scrapbook fans. Current history seems to bring out most of this type of work. Both boys and girls enjoy keeping a chronicle of important persons and events in current affairs. Many variations of this work are possible. Once the idea has taken root, pupils plan and execute wholly on their own and do a surprisingly good job. Completed books are available for class inspection and prove very interesting.

GRADING

Grade C. Satisfactory completion of the minimal essentials described above is recognized by the letter

grade "C." The "C" does not, therefore, represent a certain percentage of mastery. Instead it represents conscientious preparation of problem questions on each unit, active and purposeful participation in class discussions, a knowledge of current affairs of importance, and an understanding of the unit demonstrated in the unit and topic tests. Tests are scored in points and graded according to the distribution of the scores. The standard minimal accomplishment varies with the type of class. In high I. Q. groups the standard is higher than for low I. Q. groups, for it seems reasonable to expect and require greater accomplishment from those more capable.

Grade F. Failure to complete satisfactorily the required minimal essentials is recognized by the letter grade "F."

Grade G. S. Satisfactory completion of the minimal essentials plus satisfactory completion of voluntary project work on a unit is recognized by "G" or "S," the "S" representing the higher type of work. The difference between the "G" and "S" lies in the nature, quality, and amount of the voluntary work done, and the initiative demonstrated in selecting and carrying out the project or projects. Pupils are encouraged to do the voluntary work because of a genuine interest in it and not for the "G" or the "S" alone. Many undertake it in this spirit, receiving the letter award as a by-product.

The Present Status of Measurement in the Social Sciences¹

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INTRODUCTION

The present discussion of the status of measurements in the social sciences will be confined to a consideration of the subjects of history, civics, economics, and sociology, because of their general acceptance as social sciences. Geography is purposely excluded from consideration because of the current debate as to whether geography most logically belongs in the social sciences or in the natural sciences. I shall discuss the topic of measurement in social sciences from the following points of view: (1) the importance of measurement, (2) the problems of measurement, (3) types of measures available, and (4) future needs in measurement.

THE IMPORTANCE OF MEASUREMENT IN SOCIAL SCIENCES

Growing Prominence. The last few years have seen a very remarkable increase in the attention given to the place of the social sciences in elementary and high school curricula. During the past few years the elementary schools, for example, have increased the amount of systematic attention given to the social sciences by many times that originally accorded it. The *Twenty-Second Year Book of the National Society for the Study of Education*, which is devoted

to a consideration of the social studies in the curriculum, is almost entirely given over to a consideration of the place of the social studies in the elementary schools. Ten years ago a systematic course of study in the social sciences for the elementary schools was quite unheard of; now no good sized system of schools in city or country is without such a course of study fairly well outlined. The traditional course of study in the social sciences in the secondary school was ancient history, medieval history, and English or American history. The present high school curriculum frequently includes ancient and medieval history, modern history of Europe, American history, community civics, problems of democracy, and courses in sociology and economics. The importance which is attached to the social sciences in the secondary school is well evidenced by the fact that a committee of public school and college representatives of the State of Michigan, considering the essentials for college entrance, has decided that an absolute essential for a student entering college is a thorough knowledge of American history. This growing attention to the social sciences makes it decidedly important that means should be devised and employed whereby the effects of teaching them may be more adequately determined.

Definition of Objectives. As will be pointed out later, one of the most significant problems in the teaching of social sciences is that of determining upon the aims of instruction. Koos² has conducted a study in which it is shown that teachers are divided in opinions with regard to the following legitimate aims for the teaching of history:

1. To master the text.
2. To cultivate the power of handling facts.
3. To develop the spirit of nationalism.
4. To cultivate reconstructive imagination.
5. To equip the student with a store of historical information.
6. To develop the "faculty of discrimination."
7. To promote good citizenship.
8. To develop ability in speech, oral and written.
9. To inspire with a love of reading.
10. To teach the use of books.

Such an array of objectives and such a diversity of opinions emphasizes the fact that the aims of teaching have been regarded as of such significance that they would practically accomplish all that could be hoped for in the entire curriculum of the elementary or secondary school. A more adequate measurement of the achievements in the social sciences would undoubtedly enable teachers to determine more definitely upon the aims of instruction that are sound and may be realized. As a matter of fact, it is true that any attempt at measurement in fields of instruction tends to compel us to specify much more definitely what the objectives of instruction are and to confine us to the sort of teaching which will enable us to realize more definitely some particular aims.

The Improvement of the Curriculum. Adequate measurements in the field of social sciences will not only enable us to establish somewhat more definitely the aims of instruction, but will also enable us to determine to what extent we are accomplishing the defined objectives. Measurements should enable us to determine to what extent our materials are suited to the various levels of ability in the schools and to eliminate such types of material as are insignificant for the realization of our aims. In other words, the importance of measurement in the social sciences is apparent when we find that it will enable us continually to revise the social science curriculum so that it fills more satisfactorily the needs of boys and girls.

The Improvement of Instruction. That instruction in the social sciences has been of high grade for the most part no one will doubt. On the other hand, that instruction has been in too many instances inferior and unsatisfactory must be agreed. Probably less than in any other subject now taught systematically in elementary grades and high school has there been any effective means of check upon the efficiency of instruction in social sciences. In such fields as reading, arithmetic, physics, or algebra the objectives have been sufficiently defined and the means of measurement have been sufficiently clear so that comparative checks upon the efficiency of the instruction may be made. In the field of social sciences there has been little or no opportunity to determine definitely whether the teaching has been effective and to what extent pupils have made progress under the course of instruction. Measurement of a more adequate sort,

if carefully applied, should result in a determination of the extent to which the teaching has been satisfactory and the extent to which particular individuals within a group have made progress of the sort which may be legitimately expected of them.

PROBLEMS OF MEASUREMENT IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

Indefinite Objectives. The discussion up to this point has made clear what are some of the problems of measurement in the social sciences. Undoubtedly the most difficult problem faced by those who are interested in measurement in social sciences is the indefinite nature of the objectives. We find that there is no very satisfactory agreement among teachers of social sciences as to what they are attempting to do. The objectives usually deal in such glittering generalities or in such remote hopes that the worker in measurement is at a loss to know just at what point to begin in his measurement and to what extent his measurement, when constructed, agrees with the personal opinions of the instructor of the social sciences. Let us suppose, for example, that we consider the most definite of the objectives of instruction in social sciences such as that the textbook should be mastered. Obviously we are confronted with the difficulty of determining which textbook should be mastered and what is meant by mastery of a textbook. Contrast that with such an objective as the development of the spirit of nationalism and the difficulty of the problem of measurement is increased manifold.

Minimum Essentials. The second very serious problem in the measurement of the social sciences lies in the lack of agreement upon any minimum essentials in a particular field. In fields like mathematics or spelling there are certain facts and skills which are absolutely essential to master either for a promotion from one unit to another in the work or essential to continuation in the study of the subject. In the field of social sciences there is at the present time no clear definition of what constitutes an absolute minimum of information along a particular line with the result that the most simple types of measurement in the field are exceedingly difficult to formulate. It will not be my purpose to discuss here whether or not minimum essentials should be found in the social sciences; I believe that it is self-evident that any subject which is so generally and systematically taught in the elementary and secondary schools must, if the instruction is to be effective, contain some knowledge, habits, or skills which every student must master if he is to profit by future instruction. In fact, it is difficult to understand how some of the more general aims of instruction, such as the development of a spirit of nationalism, or development of the power of handling facts, could be realized unless the student has at his command a certain minimum of information which will serve as a basis for the realization of these aims.

Unification. Another exceedingly perplexing problem confronting the worker in measurement, at the present time, concerns itself with the diversity of opinion with regard to the extent to which the various social sciences should be unified. According to the judgments of many individuals the courses of instruction in the social sciences in the elementary schools

and high schools should be unified so as not to separate history from civics, sociology or economics, but to proceed rather upon the basis that the student needs to understand present-day socio-economic problems. The feeling is that the only way by which a student can come to understand intelligently present-day socio-economic problems is through a unification of these various traditional divisions. Such a unification, naturally, constitutes a very serious problem in measurement. No worker in the field of measurement desires to construct a test which is not in accord with the most up-to-date philosophy of education,—not to fail to take into consideration the ultimate needs of the pupils of the schools. The worker in measurement is aware of the fact that the test, as constructed, will very frequently serve as a guide to the teacher in instruction. He is compelled, therefore, to consider carefully whether he should construct tests based on a unified plan of instruction in the social sciences or whether he should construct them in terms of the traditional divisions which have prevailed in the school.

Unreliability of Test Results. Measurement of social sciences becomes much more difficult because of the lack of similarity between any two types of questions or test items which could be placed before the child. It is obvious, of course, that no test could be constructed in such a way that it would contain all items of information or all evidences of skill within any particular field. The test must be made up of a random sampling of items based upon a more or less exhaustive study of the content of the curriculum. In some fields, like arithmetic, a problem may be constructed which has sufficient similarity with others so that, from its solution, one may reliably expect the pupil would solve others of like sort which could be constructed. On the other hand, it would not be possible, for example, for a test to call for a certain specific fact in history or civics or to present a specific problem in any one of these fields on the assumption that one could infer with accuracy from the response of the pupil to the particular test item that he would respond in the same way to another test item constructed on the same plan or based upon different information. In other words, there is a sufficient difference between the various items which might be included in a social science test so that a random selection of test items would not give the same degree of reliability as might be expected of a random selection of test items based upon the course of study in arithmetic or chemistry.

The Objectivity of Scoring. Measurement in the social sciences is made difficult because of the lack of objectivity in scoring test items. There are many isolated facts, of course, that are perfectly definite, such as dates, names of men, and events. On the other hand, the scoring of test items of a sort which deal with the effectiveness with which the pupil can handle facts or the degree to which he can see the cause and effect relationships is frequently debatable. The consequence is that we may frequently find a lack of objectivity in a social science test which reduces its value to the teacher.

PRESENT STATUS OF MEASUREMENT OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

History. In the field of history a number of tests are now available for use in the elementary grades and high school. These history tests cover American, European, ancient, medieval, and modern history. It would be impossible to describe in detail all available history tests. The following is a list of the names of some available history tests:³

Van Wagenen Scales in American History.
Van Wagenen Reading Scales in History.
Pressey-Richards Test in the Understanding of American History.
Pressey American History Vocabulary Test.
Columbia Research Bureau American History Test.
Gregory-Owens Tests in Medieval and Modern History.
Gregory Tests in American History for grade VII.
Gregory Tests in American History for grade VIII.
Gregory Tests in American History, grades VIII to XII.
Barr Diagnostic Tests in American History.

The following is a list of the various phases of history for which measurements have been devised:

Ability to read history.
Character judgment.
Historical vocabulary.
Sequence of events.
Cause and effect relationships.
Knowledge of facts and dates.
The association of events.
Chronological judgment.
Historical judgment.
Evaluation of the importance of events.
Ability to draw conclusions from series of facts and events.
Associations of individuals and movements.
Associations of countries and productions.
Associations of countries and individuals.

A fairly typical test of history is the Gregory-Owen Test in Medieval and Modern History. This test may be described as follows:

Part I, Miscellaneous Facts and Dates.

Sample: Who was the Maid of Orleans?

Peter the Great was a citizen of what country?

Part II, Association of Events.

Sample: Napoleon was associated with which of the following?

Bunker Hill Troy Sempach Verdun Waterloo
Chateau Thierry.

Part III, Historical Vocabulary.

Sample: A papal bull is.....a certain breed of beef cattle, a sacred animal of India, a decree issued by the Pope, a form of worship practiced through the Middle Ages.

Part IV, Sequence of Events.

Sample: Write the numbers which precede the events that come first and last in each of the following: 1. Columbus; 2. The Great Armada; 3. Pilgrim Fathers; 4. The voyage of Magellan.

Part V, Cause and Effect Relationships.

Sample: One of the words, phrases, or clauses below is the result and the others are causes. Indicate the number which precedes the results in each statement: 1. Persecution of Christian Pilgrims; 2. Religious frenzy; 3. Crusades; 4. Desire of Christians to Recover Holy Lands.

Part VI, History of the Middle Ages.

Sample: The Fall of Rome was due to:
....Internal decay of the Roman Empire.
....Superior intelligence of the Teutons.
....Lack of military supplies in Rome.

Part VII, Modern History.

Sample: The Colonial Expansion of Germany began:
Before the Franco-Prussian War.
After the Franco-Prussian War.
At the time of the Franco-Prussian War.

Civics. In the field of civics among tests available are:⁴

Hill Civics Information and Attitudes Tests.
 Brown-Woody Civics Test.
 The American Council Civics and Government Test.
 Upton-Chassell Scale for Measuring Habits of Good Citizenship.
 Almack-Gregory Test of American Civics and Government.

The phases of measurement included in existing civics tests include:

Information.
 Civics judgment and policy.
 Civic vocabulary.
 Civic attitudes.
 Civic thinking.
 Civic habits.

The Brown-Woody Civics Test is somewhat typical and may be described as follows:

Part I, Civic Vocabulary.

Sample: Statute (law, constitution, tradition, custom).

Part II, Civic Information.

Sample: May any adult become a candidate for office, local or national?

Part III, Civic Thinking.

Sample: An Amendment to the Constitution has been proposed by Congress. After lengthy debate and serious consideration it has been passed by both houses and is subsequently dispatched to the several states of the Union for ratification. If some one, after hearing about the proposed Amendment, inquired of you how many states must ratify the Amendment before it could become a part of the Constitution, which of the following answers would you make?

1. Three-fourths of the forty-eight states.
2. One-half of the total number of states.
3. All states having more than two representatives.
4. Two-thirds of the states of the Union.
5. All of the states of the Union.

Economics. In the field of economics, so far as I know, only the American Council Economics Test has been very generally used up to the present. This test may be described as follows:⁵

Part I, General Information in the Field of Economics.

Sample: Division of labor increases the productive capacity of labor. Yes. No.

Part II, Association Between Countries and Products.

Sample: Which country produces the greatest amount of coffee?

Associations Between Particular Individuals and Industry or Economic Movements.

Sample: Who is a national figure in the field of meat-packing?

Association Between Dates and Economic Events.

Sample: At what time was the bimetallic standard adopted?

Part III, Definition of Terms in Economics.

Sample: What are proceeds called which shareholders receive from a corporation?

1. Interest; 2. rebates; 3. surplus; 4. dividends.

Sociology. In the field of sociology practically nothing has been prepared which is of a standardized nature. The nearest approach to a test which is

designed to measure the results of instruction in sociology is the Watson Test of Public Opinion.⁶ This Watson Test of Public Opinion may be described as follows:

Part A, Cross Out Test.

Sample: A large number of words are listed, such as Bolshevik, Mystic, Sunday Blue Laws, Roman Catholic, Higher Criticism, and the individual is asked to cross out such words as are disagreeable to him.

Part B, Degree of Truth Test.

Sample: The individual is asked to indicate on a scale of +2, +1, 0, -1, -2 the degree of truth in such statements as, "The churches are more sympathetic with capital than with labor."

Part C, Inference Test.

Sample: The individual is asked to read a particular account and draw some inference or conclusion from it. For example, "6,500 students recently attended a conference in which the questions of race relations and of possible attitudes toward war were discussed, these being the problems the students felt to be most vital today."

Part D, Moral Judgment Test.

Sample: The individual is asked to read an account and to indicate the disposition which would be most moral to make under the circumstances. For example, "A man stumbled into his house, drunk with bootleg whisky. He smashed up some of the furniture and beat his wife and children. Then he stole some money from his small son's bank in order to buy more whisky."

His action is worthy of approval.

The people who tolerated the sale of bootleg whisky were in some degree responsible.

The occurrence is worthy neither of approval nor of disapproval. It is quite indifferent.

It would be desirable to prevent such a thing happening again, if possible, by establishing a better type of character in the man himself.

Part E, Arguments Test.

Sample: Some such questions are put as: Is Socialism desirable in the United States today? The individual is asked to indicate which of certain statements are weak and strong arguments.

Part F, Generalization Test.

Sample: The individual is asked to determine the extent to which certain statements are true, such as: "Poor men win important lawsuits against great corporations."

Social Science Tests. In the general field of social sciences at least one test has been constructed. This is known as Kepner Background Tests in Social Science.⁷ It may be described as follows:

Part I, General Information.

Sample: A foreigner helping the Americans during the Revolutionary War was:

Webster Lafayette Newton Genet.

Part II, Literary Background.

Sample: The Leather Stocking Tales tell of life among the Vikings Crusaders Russian Cossacks Indians.

Part III, Geographic Concepts.

Sample: Distance on the earth's surface measured east and west is called.....

Part IV, Knowledge of Historical Words.

Sample: Propaganda is a method of spreading:

....germs of deadly diseases.

....wireless messages.

....beliefs, opinions, or principles.

Part V, Knowledge of Civic, Sociological, and Economic Terms.

Sample: That part of the government determining the meaning of laws is:

Judiciary Political Party Cabinet Treason.

Part VI, Chronological Association of Men or Events.

Sample: Place the following men in their order of appearance in American History: Roosevelt, Jefferson, Lincoln, Wilson, Washington.

Part VII, Matching Dates and Events.

Example: Match the following list of dates—1863, 1492, 1765, 1620, 1776—with Declaration of Independence, Emancipation Proclamation, Discovery of America, Settlement of Plymouth, Stamp Act.

FUTURE NEEDS OF MEASUREMENT IN SOCIAL SCIENCES

Test of Fundamentals or Minimum Essentials.

One of the most outstanding needs of measurement in all social sciences at the present time is the preparation of tests designed to measure the extent to which pupils have mastered the minimum essentials in any given course or unit of a course. This, it seems to me, is absolutely essential to any future development of measurement devices in the field. Until such a time comes that we can establish standards of achievement as definite in the fields of social sciences as we do in other fundamental school subjects it will not be possible to establish the social sciences as a systematic part of the elementary of high school curriculum.

Diagnostic Tests. We need to develop and to make use of tests of a more diagnostic nature in the field of social sciences. In this I do not mean that we should limit ourselves to a determination of the extent to which we have obtained certain information, have learned the cause and effect relationships between various events, or have learned to handle the facts gained in social sciences for various purposes, but, rather, we should construct a series of tests designed to determine the causes for lack of satisfactory achievements in the field of the social sciences. I have in mind that we might well construct some tests involving the ability to read materials of social science sort, the extent of development of the pupil's social science vocabulary, the efficiency with which his mind functions in dealing with socio-economic problems, and so forth, with the intention of directing the attention of the teachers to the fundamental causes of the pupil's deficiencies.

Instructional Tests. In all phases of social science it would be very profitable if we could develop a series of tests based upon various units of subject-matter covered in the courses from beginning to end. Through this means we could determine more or less objectively whether a student has mastered the fundamentals involved in a given unit of subject-matter and whether he is able to use the essential ideas given in the subject-matter to advantage in the solution of present-day problems. Whether or not such a series of tests is profitable in the field of social sciences will not be certain until they have been given trial; but it seems sensible to suppose that there should be sufficient agreement concerning the content of history

materials covering given movements or in a civics course covering particular phases of government to justify the construction of a series of tests to be applied at the end of the presentation of given units in these fields.

Informal Tests. Teachers of social sciences, like teachers in any other fields, would profit greatly and would stimulate children markedly if they would construct informal tests from time to time based upon the subject-matter taught in their particular fields and designed particularly to measure some of the broader outcomes and more subtle aspects of their instruction. It is my personal observation that teachers of social sciences are quite generous in suggesting the purposes for which they teach and quite optimistic in what they hope to achieve, but are not disposed to attempt the construction of any types of tests on their own account which will so much as pretend to measure the objectives which they have proposed to attain.

¹ Read before the Seventh Annual Meeting of the Southwestern Michigan Social Science Association.

² P. M. Symonds, *Measurement in Secondary Education*, p. 162.

³ Publishers of History Tests:

Van Wagenen Scales in American History, Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.

Van Wagenen Reading Scales in History, Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.

Pressey-Richards Test in the Understanding of American History, Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.

Pressey American History Vocabulary Test, Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.

Columbia Research Bureau American History Test, World Book Co., Chicago, Ill.

Gregory-Owens Tests in Medieval and Modern History, C. A. Gregory Company, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Gregory Tests in American History for grade VII, C. A. Gregory Co., Cincinnati, Ohio.

Gregory Tests in American History for grade VIII, C. A. Gregory Co., Cincinnati, Ohio.

Gregory Tests in American History, grades VIII to XII, C. A. Gregory Co., Cincinnati, Ohio.

Barr Diagnostic Tests in American History, Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.

American Council European History Test, World Book Company, Chicago, Ill.

Denny-Nelson American History Test, World Book Company, Chicago, Ill.

Junior American History Test, World Book Company, Chicago, Ill.

⁴ Publishers of Civics Tests:

Hill Civics Information and Attitudes Tests, Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.

Brown-Woody Civics Test, World Book Company, Chicago, Ill.

The American Council Civics and Government Test, World Book Company, Chicago, Ill.

Upton-Chassell Scale for Measuring Habits of Good Citizenship, Bureau of Publications, Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York City.

Almack-Gregory Test of American Civics and Government, C. A. Gregory Co., Cincinnati, Ohio.

⁵ American Council Economics Test, published by the World Book Company, Chicago, Ill.

⁶ Watson Test of Public Opinion, published by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York City.

⁷ Kepner Background Tests in Social Science, published by the Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass.

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

By COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

W. G. Kimmel, Chairman

On April 18th and 19th a conference on the teaching of undergraduate courses in the social sciences was held at Northwestern University. One hundred and thirty-one instructors in economics, history, philosophy, political science, psychology, sociology, and anthropology were in attendance, representing fifty-six colleges in the Middle West.

The first general session, on the morning of the 18th, was devoted to a consideration of the general orientation course in the social sciences. Professor Charles W. Coulter of Ohio Wesleyan University presided, and the formal discussion was initiated by him, Professor Lynn E. Garwood of Coe College, Professor Ferguson R. Ormes of Wabash College, and Dr. George J. Cady of Northwestern University.

In the afternoon the conference met in five round-tables to discuss the introductory course in each of the social sciences. The questions to which particular attention was directed were: (1) What should the introductory course be? (2) What should it contain? (3) What is the best method of teaching it? In the economics round-table, the presiding officer was Professor Edwin S. Todd of Miami University, and the discussion was opened by Professor Jesse S. Robinson of Carleton College, Professor James A. Estey of Purdue University, and Professor Herman J. Stratton of Illinois College. In the history section the presiding officer was Professor Paul L. Haworth of Butler College, and the discussion was opened by Professor H. Clifford Fox of the University of Dubuque, Professor Arthur H. Hirsch of Ohio Wesleyan University, Professor Louis B. Schmidt of Iowa State College, and Professor Albert A. Trever of Lawrence College. The departments of philosophy and psychology joined in a round-table, over which Professor Martin L. Reymert of Wittenberg College presided. Papers were presented by Professor Ralph E. Browns of Illinois Wesleyan College, Professor T. E. Carter of Albion College, Professor J. E. Evans of Iowa State College, and Professor O. N. deWeerd of Beloit College. In the political science round-table, Professor Karl F. Geiser of Oberlin College was the presiding officer, and the discussion was led by Professor O. Garfield Jones of the University of the City of Toledo, Professor Jay J. Sherman of the College of the City of Detroit, and Professor Florence E. Janson of Rockford College. In the sociology round-table the presiding officer was Professor Newell L. Sims of Oberlin College, and the speakers were Professor E. H. Shideler of Franklin College and Professor Harry B. Sell of Reed College.

The members of the conference were the guests of Northwestern University at a dinner in the evening, at which Dean James A. James presided, and Dr. Alvin S. Johnson spoke on the making of the new Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences.

The session on the morning of the 19th was held in Lincoln Hall in the Law Building on the McKinlock Campus. The subject for discussion was: What constitutes a minimum college program in the social sciences? Professor John A. Lapp of Marquette University was the presiding officer, and opening addresses were made by Professor Waldo F. Mitchell of DePauw University, Professor A. W. Newcombe of Knox College, Professor John H. Farley of Lawrence College, Professor Howard White of Miami University, Professor Delton Howard of Northwestern University, and Professor E. H. Shideler of Franklin College.

The committee in charge of arrangements consisted of the following members of the faculty of Northwestern University: A. R. Ellingwood (Chairman), J. W. Bell, I. J. Cox, Franklin Fearing, E. L. Schaub, A. J. Todd.

Laurance F. Shaffer, "Children's Interpretations of Cartoons" (Teachers' College, Columbia University, 1930), is a study of the nature and development of the ability to

interpret symbolic drawings. Ten cartoons on economic, political, and social problems were presented to about 150 pupils in each grade from Grade IV through Grade XII. One group of five cartoons were interpreted by 1,344 children, while a second group of five were interpreted by another group of 1,407 children. A complicated method was used to measure the responses quantitatively and qualitatively. In the former the variability of judgment of equally often-noticed differences of a group of judges formed the basis for the construction of a scale for rating the responses for each cartoon; in the latter a system of classification and tabulation of "core meanings" was used.

Data are presented for each cartoon in terms of scale and median grades for each interpretation by grades in which the pupils were enrolled in schools. Simple, partial, and multiple correlations are presented for the ability to interpret cartoons in relation to grade, age, and intelligence. A large proportion of children's responses to cartoons can be classified under a small number of "core meanings," and quantitative results are presented in this form. Considered qualitatively, the poorest responses were found most frequently in the lower grades, and in decreasing order toward the highest grades. There was an increasing percentage of best interpretations in successive grades. Four types of response were found: "repetition," "description," "concrete interpretation," and "abstract interpretation." The author advances the hypothesis that the ability to make an abstract interpretation is associated more with mental growth than with other factors. The interpretation of a symbolic drawing involves a process of reasoning, similar in nature and in the types of errors made to the reading of a paragraph. There is a greater rate of improvement in the ability to interpret cartoons at ages 12 to 15 than at other age levels. The ability is appreciably associated with grade level and with intelligence. Children at the junior high school level can make abstract interpretations of cartoons. The levels of interpretations found for Grades XI and XII probably represent the limit of the ability under present conventional training.

W. H. Winch, in "Dates Versus Centuries in Teaching Chronology to School Children," in the February and June issues of *The Forum of Education* (London), reports a series of two experiments, and refers to a third, carried forward in the schools of London, including Standard V, VI, and VII classes. The techniques are reported in some detail, and the "Summarized Conclusions" are stated as follows:

(1) That a much greater aggregate of chronological knowledge is obtained by teaching dates rather than centuries.

(2) That dates are as easily learned as centuries.

(3) That this result is not due to a greater absorption of mental energy; since, in general historical knowledge (apart from chronology) acquired during the lessons, one group is as proficient as the other.

Chester Otto Newlun's "Teaching Children to Summarize in Fifth-Grade History" (Teachers' College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 404, 1930), is a report of an experiment which should be of especial interest to teachers of history in the intermediate grades. The Langren-Woody Reading Test, parts of the Simpson-Gambrill-Moore History Tests, the rating of summaries written by pupils, by judges, and a subject-matter test constructed by the author were administered, the first three as initial and final tests. The method of equivalent groups was used, and pupils were equated on the basis of chronological age, and initial test scores for reading and history. Pupils were paired, and the groups were approximately equal in I.Q.'s and M.A.'s, based on a group intelligence test. The experiment was conducted in three schools, and

was supervised by the author and an assistant. The length of the experiment was twelve weeks; the only difference in procedure between the control and experimental groups was that in the experimental group ten minutes of the thirty-minute period were devoted to instruction in making summaries. Directions were given to the teachers, and all teachers kept "logs" of actual procedures used day by day. Pupils in all groups were asked to make summaries at the beginning of the experiment, at the end of the experiment, and pupils in the experimental groups made summaries four weeks after the close of the experiment.

Results are presented in tables throughout the report, and appendices include eight tables, samples of summaries, and samples of teachers' logs. There is a bibliography.

Conclusions include: (1) Most fifth-grade pupils can be taught to make summaries in the training period used in the experiment; (2) the effect of training varies; (3) training in summarizing can improve the achievement in history to a greater extent than the usual conventional methods of study, but does not guarantee increased achievement; (4) the use of summarizing as a method of study is not likely to affect achievement in reading; (5) the use of this method for a part of a class period does not interfere with achievement in other respects.

"Formal and Informal Instruction in United States History in the Seventh Grade," reported by Robert B. Weaver in the June issue of the *Elementary School Journal*.

An investigation was undertaken in order to determine the comparative value of formal instruction and informal instruction in assisting seventh-grade pupils enrolled in a course in United States history to reduce the number of errors in their written work.

During a preliminary investigation it was found that pupils studying United States history in writing papers of a historical nature included biased views, misplaced topics, omitted significant facts, held fundamental misconceptions, and made incorrect statements. A record was kept of the number of errors of these five types made by the pupils of two sections during the study of nine units of the course taught in the University High School. Instructions in Units 2-5 of the course was given to twenty-one pupils in Section A by a formal method and to twenty-one pupils in Section B by an informal method. During the study of Units 6-9 of the course, the procedure was reversed; that is, the pupils in Section B were taught by the formal method, and the pupils in Section A were taught by the informal method.

When formal instruction was employed, the errors, which were identified and marked by the instructor, became the subject of special study. After the pupils had corrected the errors in their written work, they immediately prepared exercises focused on the types of errors they had made. These exercises, of course, were additional assignments, and their purpose was to assist the pupils in eliminating errors of the same types in later papers. When informal instruction was employed, the errors, which were identified and marked by the instructor, did not become the subject of special study. The pupils corrected the errors in their written work, but they did not prepare exercises focused on the types of errors which they had made. It was assumed, when informal instruction was employed, that the pupils understood their difficulties after they had corrected their errors, and that additional assignments were unnecessary.

During the study of each of the units the pupils in the two sections wrote three papers immediately after the reading of historical accounts. Each section was divided into a low third, a middle third, and a high third, in order to study the comparative value of formal instruction and informal instruction in the case of near-problem pupils, average pupils, and superior pupils. During the study of Units 2-5 and Units 6-9 the pupils in the low third and middle third of the section taught by the formal method were able to reduce their errors to an extent which would probably be considered sufficient to justify the employment of this method in teaching near-problem and average pupils. The understanding developed during the study of

Units 2-5 was carried over to the second period, when Units 6-9 were studied in the case of the near-problem and average pupils, but not, to any great extent, in the case of the superior pupils. Formal instruction proved more effective in reducing errors of certain types, and informal instruction proved more effective in reducing errors of other types. The difference was not consistent, but the conclusion appears warranted that neither type of instruction is effective in removing all types of errors.

There appeared to be a relation between the number of errors made and the time of the use of formal instruction. In the case of the pupils in the low thirds and in the middle thirds, informal instruction preceded by formal instruction resulted in fewer errors than informal instruction followed by formal instruction. In the case of the pupils in the high thirds, informal instruction followed by formal instruction resulted in fewer errors than informal instruction preceded by formal instruction.

The data show that pupils of superior ability may waste their time on exercises which are effective in improving the work of average and near-problem pupils. Neither the formal method nor the informal method of instruction was found to be distinctly superior in enabling pupils to reduce the number of errors of every type studied.

Everett Davis and Mae Goldizen, in "A Study of Class Size in Junior High School History," in the May issue of *The School Review*, report the method and data of an experiment dealing with results obtained by seventy pupils in a large class in Grade VII-A in American history, compared with the results of two control classes, each including thirty-five pupils. The 215 pupils in Grade VII-A in the school were ranked in terms of scores on an intelligence test, and divided into two groups, based on even and odd numbers in the scores. The highest twenty-one pupils in each group were not included in the experiment, for the reason that "there is some evidence that classes of high ability respond differently to instruction." The same teacher met the three classes (Experimental—70 pupils; two control classes—35 pupils each), using a modified form of the Morrison technique, with the same materials and tests. The experiment included three units of work, divided into definite assignments, and covered one semester. Tests of the "new-types" varied in number of parts from five for the first test, ten for the third, and twelve for the second unit. Data are not reported for the pre-tests because the writers state that such data "were of no significance in arriving at the conclusions stated in this article."

Data are presented in two tables. The highest possible composite scores for the tests were: 120, 190, 141. The ranges of scores and medians for the first test are: experimental groups—116-36-M 90; control groups—119-56-M 97.5. Similar data for second unit: experimental group—183-124-M 158.5; control groups—177-116-M 159. For the third unit, similar data include: experimental group—141-111-M 134.5; control groups—139-43-M 128. The authors, on the basis of the data presented in the article, write as follows:

"In so far as the methods used in this experiment actually test the learning acquired by pupils, the following conclusions seem to be justified: (1) The evidence indicates that the large section was as well-taught as were the small sections. (2) The pupils in the large section seem to have been at no disadvantage because of having been in the group. (3) Nothing in this study indicates the optimum size of class. That information may be secured through a series of similar experiments. (4) Larger classes in American history can be organized at the junior high school level.

"The last conclusion opens the way to a number of readjustments. Larger classes mean fewer classes, fewer teachers, and better teachers. Childhood and youth need master teachers. The administrator's objective is to bring teachers of great personality, great ability, large social experience, and the best professional training into the public schools. Larger classes will release funds which will help the school executive to realize this objective."

The June issue of *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House* (32 Washington Place, New York City) is devoted to the social studies. Charles H. Judd, in "Social Studies in the High School," discusses the proposition that all the subjects taught in the school contribute, or should contribute, to the social training of pupils. Daniel C. Knowlton, in "History and the Other Social Studies in the Classroom of the Secondary School," discusses some of the problems and developments in the teaching of the social studies. "The Social-Science Laboratory," by H. V. Littell and Grace Taylor, is a discussion of the functions and values of the laboratory, with a discussion of equipment and materials actually used at Saranac Lake, N. Y., High School, and a description of types of activities in which pupils engage. Lucy L. W. Wilson, in "Evolution of the Dalton Plan in the South Philadelphia High School," discusses the development of courses and techniques to meet individual differences, includes samples of materials for different units, and relates the direct classroom activities to the counseling program, the socialization program, and provisions made for the honors group of pupils in the school. John R. Davey, in "A Course in 'Human Betterment' for the Junior High School," describes the objectives and organization of the course offered for two years in the University of Chicago High School, and mentions some of the results obtained. Edith Hoyle describes a number of effective devices for classroom use under the title, "Stranger Than Fiction." Earle U. Rugg discusses "Some Implications of Citizenship Education." "Consistency in Aims of Teaching the Social Studies" includes the mention of a series of inconsistencies by Charles M. Gill. Joseph B. Matthews, in "Peace and the Social Sciences," develops the thesis that peace is "a process in a dynamic society working for the larger embodiment of justice in social relationships." "Social Science in the Junior High Schools of Schenectady," by Edgar B. Palmer, includes a list of units and a description of classroom procedures. Alice Ball Struthers, in "Pupil Activity in the Social-Studies Program," stresses the place and functions of activities. "Social Science in the Junior High Schools of Fordson" is described by Ferris E. Lewis, while Theodore Estabrook presents "The Social Sciences at Fairbault High School." W. A. Stigler discusses "The Unit Plan of Teaching History." Calvin O. Davis, Chairman of the committee responsible for this issue of the publication, discusses some features of a program for "Training Teachers of the Social Studies."

The April issue of *The New Era* (11 Tavistock Square, London) is devoted to "The Teaching of History Dedicated to the League of Nations." Gilbert Murray contributes an introduction in which the thesis that "history must change her scheme of values" is briefly outlined. G. P. Gooch, in "History as a Training for Citizenship," discusses the services which history may render in terms of intellectual illumination and ethical qualities. Alfred Zimmermann states certain relationships of "The League of Nations and the Teaching of History." J. E. Lloyd briefly outlines the distinctive features of a "Four Years' Course in History for Welsh Secondary Schools." There is a report of an interview with "Mr. H. G. Wells on History Teaching." F. C. Happold, in "Knowledge or Training," outlines the problems involved and their implications, and points out that the effects of training remain long after facts are forgotten. Daniel C. Knowlton, in "Blazing New Trails in Historical Instruction," presents some examples of creative work done by pupils in history classes, and briefly mentions the stages in the procedure through which the creative work was developed. Katharine Taylor discusses "Aims and Ways of History Teaching," while Hendrik Willem Van Loon contributes "The Noble Art of Forgetting," illustrated in his own inimitable manner. "An Investigation of Racial Prejudice in Children of School Age in Wales" is reported by G. H. Green and Sydney Herbert. Statements in support of prejudice are ascribed to the following sources: books, 50 per cent.; school, 10 per cent.; newspapers, 10 per cent.; home, 10 per cent.; experience, 10 per cent.; cinema, 10 per cent.; "religious organizations, practically zero."

C. H. B. Quennell contributes "A Museum for Boys and Girls"; Elsa Nunn describes "A School Historical Pageant." E. A. De Bevere discusses the relationship of "The Brussels Mondaneum and the Teaching of History." "International Gatherings of School Children" is reported by E. M. Gilpin; Henry Copley Greene describes the services of "The History Reference Council." Dorothy Dymond introduces a discussion of "Some Suggestions on Individual Work for Children Under Fifteen," which is followed by E. M. Harrison on "The Use of a School Library," A. J. Lofvengren "The Use of Original Authorities," G. E. Hutchings on "History Teaching Through Observation." "New Theories in Practice" is a series of brief reports from teachers in progressive schools in England and in the United States.

The training of elementary school teachers provides a point of departure for the consideration of their secondary-school instruction in history, prior to entering the training school, by T. W. Sussams, in the February issue of *The Forum of Education* (London), entitled, "Training Colleges and the Teaching of History." A questionnaire based on their responses to secondary-school history was filled in and returned by 249 students from all parts of England. Some of the findings are: History is liked by 70 per cent., 75 per cent. read historical novels, and 46 per cent. continue to read serious historical works. A liking for the subject seems to develop late in secondary-school life, but 22 per cent. disclaim any liking for it during that period. Those who have disliked history in the lower school comment favorably in the content of courses or the inspiration of the teachers, although it is their personal characteristics as specialists, never the methods of presentation, which receive praise. Barely 20 per cent. of the replies indicate an outline of national history in a logical or chronological order was followed in the schools attended, 40 per cent. show outlines in which significant epochs were omitted, while 40 per cent. were enrolled in courses which were not carefully planned and omitted important materials. The effects of the examination vary, but many teachers tend to make the work a dull grind in order to gain good results. In the first school examination the history results are the worst for all subjects. Eighty-eight per cent. of pupils offer history, but only 42.3 per cent. pass with credit. In the second school examination, on the other hand, history is surpassed only by English as the highest subject, with 34.5 per cent. of entrants offering it and 78.1 per cent. of passes. Seventy per cent. of the schools attended by students filing replies have a collection of standard works for reading and reference; 75 per cent. have libraries of historical novels; 40 per cent. apparently have teachers who persist in the dictation of notes; 15 per cent. use time lines; only 30 per cent. of the students have worked with pictures, plans, and diagrammatic summaries; over 80 per cent. have no acquaintance with sources before entering college.

The author ascribes the conditions disclosed to the dominance of the secondary schools by the universities. Among suggested changes are more orderly presentation of the syllabus, the elimination of subtleties and generalization, and the rethinking of the materials in terms of the child mind. In the training school it is impossible to cover the whole range of British history in two years, but students should not be restricted too closely in a period. Broad topics extending over a long period of time may be treated, but in a manner which will enable them to impart an interest in and a desire to learn history to children. "Turning the training college into a shadowy imitation of the university without its opportunities for careful scholarship or fruitful leisure will not help us."

A. C. Krey, in "Problems of the College Teacher—A Discussion of General Pressing Problems of the Social-Science Teacher," in the April issue of *Journal of Higher Education*, points out some of the major problems encountered in the teaching of the social sciences at the junior college level. Among the problems discussed are: problems growing out of the greatly increased enrollment

in social-science courses, with the necessity of making temporary provisions for taking care of students; the need for a redefinition of objectives in terms of subjects and of the wants and needs of students; the need of criteria for the evaluation of the different types of experimental courses now in use; the desirability of an appraisal of the different methods and procedures used in instruction with standards for comparison in the form of testing procedure; the problems of differential treatment on the basis of ability, training, and aims of the students.

The Committee on High School Geography of the National Council of Geography Teachers, A. E. Parkins, Chairman, in the March issue of *Journal of Geography*, presents a report on an "Elective Course in Senior High School Geography." The course is concerned with modern political geography, and there is the possibility of the addition of an alternative course at a later date. The present report includes a statement of ultimate and immediate objectives, a series of general statements concerning activities to be used to realize the objectives, a series of major topics or learning exercises, a list of magazines, books, and maps, some suggestions on methods, and an outline of a type treatment of the Problems of Philippine Independence. The course is intended to deal with the geography of the national and international political problems of the major nations in terms of geographic and historical settings of these problems and of adjustments which have been made, "an understanding of which is essential to active world citizenship."

Mary G. Kelty, in the concluding article, "Understanding Versus Memorizing in History," in a series of three, in the June issue of *Normal Instructor and Primary Plans*, outlines the modern conception of the teaching of history in the intermediate grades, and presents some of the implications of this conception for methods and equipment. The modern conception stresses understanding rather than memorization; understanding has an experimental basis which must largely be obtained through reading, and should result in generalizations; the pupils must be furnished with reading materials, copious in supply, interesting, and adapted to the level of ability of the pupils. Pupil activities are essential, and the teacher should differentiate between minimal essential facts and assimilative materials. Such methods and equipment must be used as will enable the teacher to meet the goals set forth in the present conception of the study of history.

In the April issue of *California Quarterly of Secondary Education*, Hattie H. Jacobs, in "International Education Through Club Activities," outlines the development of International Clubs in the secondary schools of California from the inception in 1914-1915 in the Hollywood High School, Los Angeles, to the present time, with 56 clubs in 19 out of the 58 counties in the state. Another movement sponsored by Alice Wilson began in 1925 in the Girls' High School, San Francisco, now numbers 29 clubs. All clubs

are now affiliated with the World League of International Associations, and known as the California State Federation of World Friendship Clubs, and include Cosmopolitan, International, and Pananthropian clubs. During the school year, 1928-1929, 2,736 pupils were enrolled in these clubs. A list of schools, names of clubs, and the sponsors are given, and a list of 25 activities is appended.

In the same issue, Richard I. Abraham, in "Program Problems and Practice in Senior High Schools of San Francisco," reports data which indicate that teachers of the social studies rank third in the pupil-clock hours per teacher per week by departments, with physical education in first place, and commercial subjects in second place. The social studies rank highest among the academic subjects in the number of pupil-hours per week. Data for social-studies teachers for all seven schools show a range of 412 to 789 pupils-clock hours per teacher per week, the median is 636.

"The Objectives of History Teaching in the University," by Paul J. Fay, in the March issue of *Education*, includes an attempt to differentiate between the objectives of history teaching and those of history, followed by a statement and discussion of a series of objectives. These include: correct thinking, the acquisition of mental attitudes, habits in the selection and appraisal of facts, training of critical habits of thought, contributions toward "the construction of a philosophy of life and of a code of workable principles of conduct," to show "patterns of history" to students, to become acquainted with the great personages of history, the stimulation of the imaginations of students, and the attraction of serious students and training them in methods of historical investigation.

In the March issue of *University of Pittsburgh School of Education Journal*, Charles R. Freeble reports "An Experiment in Directing Thinking in Modern European History." Two groups of pupils in the tenth grade in regularly scheduled classes in Modern European History were equated on the basis of previous grades in history, mental age, and I. Q.'s. Then the Terman test and the Van Wagenen Reading test were administered. The experiment was conducted during one semester, with the variable element the form of materials of instruction. During the first three weeks both control and experimental groups used the contract as a part of the unit plan of organization; later, with the exception of one week, during which the pupils in both groups worked on their own initiative, the control group continued to use the contracts, while the experimental group used a form of "study guide." Tests for both units and quarterly records were constructed by the author. Results are presented in two tables. Of the eight tests administered, five showed an advantage in favor of the experimental group. Inasmuch as the control group had an advantage in both initial tests (Terman and Van Wagenen), the author concludes that the study guide plan is superior to the contract plan.

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THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK

1021 FILBERT STREET

PHILADELPHIA

Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSORS HARRY J. CARMAN AND J. BARTLET BREBNER, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

Making Fascists. By Herbert W. Schneider and Shepard B. Clough. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1929. xv, 211 pp.

Doubtless, Professor Merriam's series on "Studies in the Making of Citizens" has been prepared chiefly for the political scientist, but this volume in the series is also important for the historian. Dispassionate and without prejudice, it offers an excellent and trustworthy study of Fascism in a brief compass by two American scholars, one of whom, Professor Schneider, has written the best, longer book on the subject. The preface states that the work is based not only upon documents, but also upon numerous interviews with Fascist officials and leaders.

The volume is divided into two parts. Part One includes a brief but satisfactory account of the economic reforms and the corporate state, of the settlement with the Pope, of Fascist foreign relations, and a very interesting and somewhat more detailed analysis of the attempts to Italianize the South Tyrol. Part Two studies the various techniques used to inculcate devotion to the Fascist state and its ideals, and includes rather detailed chapters on the influences which mould public opinion—education, the army, the bureaucracy, the Fascist party, the press, and patriotic organizations.

Surely Fascism presents a remarkable example of the way in which public opinion may be radically changed within a single generation when the manifold agencies for its formation are directed skillfully and forcefully. The teacher of history will be much interested in the extracts on pages 94-97 from Fascist history texts. The authors believe that Fascism is becoming a semi-religious movement, and predict a future struggle for the highest loyalties of the Italian people between the Church and Fascism.

Few criticisms can be made. Perhaps the book is too largely factual, with relatively little space devoted to interpretation. Typographical errors are rare. On page 97 "Mazoni" should read "Manzoni"; on the next to the last line on page 122 "to" should be substituted for "of." Several minor inconsistencies have been found. What are the "307 agricultural co-operatives" mentioned on page 8? They seem to be neither consumers', credit, or marketing societies, for all those types are listed separately. On page 53 Franco-Italian relations are described as "certainly not becoming more friendly," while on page 54 one finds that "relations have improved lately between the two countries." On page 89 it is implied that secondary schools frequently include children aged eleven to fourteen, while on page 104 they are declared to be for students "above fourteen years of age."

JOHN G. GAZLEY.

Dartmouth College.

Readings in Contemporary Problems in the United States. Columbia University Press, New York, 1929. Vol. I (Edited by Horace Taylor), viii, 466 pp. Vol. II (Edited by Horace Taylor and Joseph McGoldrick), x, 829 pp.

Among the functions that the college performs perhaps the most important, at least during the first two years, is to awaken the student from the lethargic opinion that conventional conservative viewpoints are not to be questioned. Certainly it is true that the average student enters without ever having given much thought to the more pressing problems confronting humanity, and that all colleges attempt to a greater or lesser extent to lead the student to a closer scrutiny of his views. Indeed, in a great measure, the excellence of the institution depends upon the extent to which this is accomplished.

It was largely for this purpose—giving the student a clearer insight into the problems of the day—that the course known as Contemporary Civilization was originated at Columbia College. These two volumes, designed primarily to be used as a supplementary textbook in the sec-

ond year of this course, consist of selections taken from the works of various authorities, mainly in the fields of economics, government, and law. While no attempt has been made to touch upon all the more important problems, those handled have been treated with precision and the volumes represent a genuine accomplishment.

In general, the selections present a liberal, although by no means radical, point of view. Apparently the editors have labored successfully so to balance the work with contrasting selections that it is unassailable as regards bias or prejudice. For example, in dealing with the O'Fallon decision, both the judgment of the court as given by Justice McReynolds and the dissenting opinion of Justice Brandies are printed.

The unifying theme of the first volume is the corporation whose development and ramifications tend to influence an increasingly larger part of American economic life, although there are a number of articles related but vaguely, if at all, to this topic. In various selections the advantages of the corporation are discussed, its relationship with the people, its technological aspects, the changes it is causing in distribution, including the development of the chain store, together with associated matters of advertising and installment selling.

The second volume, a much larger book, deals first with law as it has developed through the ages, discussing the advantages and disadvantages of the present system with respect to such matters as juries, its complexities and uncertainties, and its tendency to uphold vested property rights, even to the neglect of human rights. It also takes up such related matters as legislative assemblies and the influences which certain "pressure" groups wield in controlling them. Then a variety of problems, mainly of a socio-economic nature, are handled, such as tendencies in the treatment of the crime problem, the family and its decline, the standard of living, social responsibilities and legislation, and the problems of public finance. The volume ends with some pages devoted to religion, capitalism, and socialism.

Among the authors from whom quotations are taken are to be found many distinguished persons. In the first volume selections appear by Stuart Chase from "The Survey Graphic"; by W. E. Walling from his book, "American Labor and American Democracy"; by George Soule, from "The New Republic," and other prominent contemporary writers. In the second volume quotations are from Oliver W. Holmes' articles in *The Harvard Law Review*, and also from his dissenting opinions in two cases before the Supreme Court; by Roscoe Pound from his book, "The Spirit of the Common Law"; by Paul Blanshard, from "The Nation"; by John Dewey from his book, "Recent Gains in American Civilization"; and by Walter Lippman from his book, "A Preface to Morals." However, besides these works of contemporary writers, selections are taken from James Madison, William Blackstone, Charles Dickens, and include the famous essay of John Stuart Mill "On Liberty of Thought and Discussion."

In attempting a criticism of a textbook for sophomores, doubtless the prime criterion is understandability by sophomores, assuming, of course, avoidance of the even greater evil, that of writing below the level of the readers. In the mind of the reviewer, it is dubious whether these volumes meet in all respects the first of these requirements. The articles, on the whole, presuppose a comparatively large familiarity with the subject being treated. One hesitates to say that this requirement would be fulfilled by those who have been exposed to but one preceding year of collegiate training, although in the special case of Columbia, where the ground has been enriched by the fertilization of the antecedent year, the crop may be expected to thrive with a somewhat higher hope of success. But however true this may be, it seems reasonable to believe that the book ought to appeal as much to the general

reader who takes an interest in the manifold problems of the nation and the world, as to sophomores in the typical American college of football, fraternities, and pornographic ribaldry. But if Messrs. Taylor, McGoldrick and the Contemporary Civilization Group at Columbia can rescue one in ten from the seductions of "college life" and bring him to grips with the insistent problems which perplex the thoughtful of the nation, their efforts will be well-rewarded. Strength to their good right arms!

B. B. KENDRICK.

North Carolina College for Women, Greensboro, N. C.

France: A Nation of Patriots. By Carlton J. H. Hayes. Columbia University Press, New York, 1930. x, 487 pp.

France: A Study in Nationality. By André Siegfried. Published for the Institute of Politics by the Yale University Press, New Haven, 1930. vii, 122 pp.

Despite the fact that they have similar titles, there is no reason why these two books should be reviewed together. The first is a study of the methods by which Frenchmen are made patriotic. The second is a study of French politics. The one deals with schools, churches, armies, newspapers, and radio. The other discusses parties, foreign policies, and political aspirations.

Yet, because M. Siegfried is a product of that very training of patriots which Mr. Hayes so well describes, it is amusing to place the works of the two men side by side. Frenchmen, Hayes assumes, are fundamentally not much different from other men, but a careful nurturing in the impressionable years of school and a steady nationalist diet in later life makes them so and more like each other. Frenchmen, Siegfried assumes, are different from other men, particularly Anglo-Saxons, because they are individualists. Though separatist tendencies exist in France, says Hayes, the government, through its control of media of public opinion and force, dictates the patriotic emotions of the people. The people control the government, says Siegfried; for the government has only one really effective

organ—the Chamber of Deputies—and French deputies are more directly responsible than others to their constituents. France, Hayes implies, is becoming more and more industrialist and is making definite efforts in that direction. France, Siegfried maintains—and he arbitrarily excludes "Lyons, Alsace, Bordeaux, Paris, and the North" (page 12) from France—is not interested in exports, and it will be a sad day when France does become industrialist.

When two intelligent observers look at the same scene and get two such totally variant impressions, one asks why? The answer is to be found in the different methods used. Mr. Hayes' book is one of the *Social and Economic Studies of Post-War France*, prepared under the auspices of the Columbia University Council for Research in the Social Sciences. It is also ("in fact, if not in name," says the preface) one of the series of *Studies in the Making of Citizens*, edited by Professor Charles E. Merriam of the University of Chicago. It fits into both series admirably. With the aid of a corps of assistants, to some of whom he ascribes whole sections of his book; by means of countless interviews, questionnaires, letters, and hard study; starting out without any preconceived notions and with only a slight pro-French bias (which does not permit him, for example, to say what he really thinks of French movies, though he makes no secret of his opinion on French cigars), Mr. Hayes analyzed every means of forming public opinion he could find, and recorded his interpretation of how they co-operate to mould devotees of the *grande nation* and how they have thus far failed to do so in Alsace and Lorraine. If there is any criticism to be made, it is that the analysis is so complete as to be repetitive and to read at times like a catalogue, as indeed the appendices are.

M. Siegfried's method is arithmetical. He seeks a lowest common denominator. In "America Comes of Age" he found this l. c. d. in the Protestant Anglo-Saxon co-operator, and he derived American civilization therefrom. In this book he finds that the typical Frenchman, the "Frenchman who is politically of the right vintage" (page 8), is

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the Catholic, bourgeois, Latin individualist. That the typical Frenchman is hard to find in the Paris salon or among the Southerners and is more likely to be found "amongst the brown-haired brachycephalic *bougnats* in the province of Auvergne" (page 19); in other words, that he is not typical at all, does not prevent Siegfried from drawing general conclusions about him in the past or even in the future.

And it is all done entrancingly. Siegfried is himself so convincing an example that one would be sorely tempted to accept his conclusions as to the superiority of the civilization which emphasizes the standard of thinking over the civilization which emphasizes the standard of living, did he not overdo it. When he quotes with approval Fournal's declaration that the French give people leisure so that they can read books, but the Anglo-Saxons give them leisure so that they can have automobiles, one naturally wonders whether it is really true that the French read more books than the English or the Americans. When he points out that Puritan democracies produce health inspectors, who interfere with the right to be unhygienic, one wonders whether departments of health are more of a burden to the American's personal liberty than the numerous taxes of the French Government are to the Frenchman's, and one wonders whether a Mussolini is not Latin enough or too unlike Bonaparte ever to recur in France to molest the personal liberties of the French individualist.

To all of these doubts Mr. Hayes has the answer. Patriots (and typical nationals, if such exist in any but the loosest sense) are made, not born. The Protestant Anglo-Saxon and the Catholic Latin can, by careful training, be made French, American, or Chinese by the proper training. The differences between French and American civilization are to be explained on historical rather than racial or religious bases, if indeed they are anything more than superficial.

LOUIS R. GOTTSCHALK.

University of Chicago.

The Labor Injunction. By Felix Frankfurter and Nathan Greene. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1930. 343 pp.

The fateful year that saw the beginning of that holocaust, which for four years was to decimate the manhood of Europe, also witnessed the passage of the Clayton Act, hailed by organized labor as "the most fundamental, the most comprehensive enunciation of industrial freedom found in any legislative act in the history of the world." Sixteen years after the passage of that act organized labor finds itself compelled to agree that the Clayton Act, as interpreted by the Supreme Court, has proved itself the acme of futility, with the exception of the restricted right to trial by jury. In the words of Messrs. F. Frankfurter and N. Greene, joint authors of "The Labor Injunction," the position "of labor before the law has been altered, if at all, imperceptibly. Common law doctrines of conspiracy and restraint of trade still hold sway; activities widely cherished as indispensable assertions of trade union life continue to be outlawed. Statutes designed to contract equity jurisdiction have been construed merely as endorsements of the jurisdiction theretofore exercised. Even the procedural incidents of the equity process, which make it so dangerous a device in labor controversies, have not been systematically adjusted to modern needs; safeguards are all too much dependent on the wisdom and rigorous fair dealing of occasional judges. The one notable change, so far as the Federal courts and a few states are concerned, is the protection of jury trial in contempt proceedings that involve accusations of crime."

How much the progress of labor has been hampered and its ranks diminished through the labor injunction and its legal relatives is a question not easily susceptible of an answer. But liberal social students are alarmed at the possibility that the modern labor movement may well be shipwrecked on the treacherous shoals of the labor injunction. A decade ago the United Mine Workers of America constituted the most powerful single labor unit. In 1921

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it counted over half a million members and controlled the bituminous fields, with the exception of the rich non-union fields in West Virginia, the region south and the relatively less important bituminous fields in the West. In addition, it held the anthracite area in Pennsylvania firmly in its grasp. In 1928 the membership of the United Mine Workers had dwindled to a little over a quarter of a million. It still holds the anthracite field in Pennsylvania, but its strength is almost completely broken in all the bituminous fields except in Illinois, while an internecine strife threatens to complete the ruin of this once so powerful organization. Now, though it may be argued that this debacle is due in part to fundamental economic changes and in part to faulty leadership, it would appear that a good case might be made out for the proposition that much of the disaster is to be laid at the doorstep of the Supreme Court of the United States, which by its labor decisions and the labor injunctions validated by them has, within the last twenty-five years, practically made impossible the unionization of the Southern coal fields. The defeat of the United Mine Workers gave the West Virginia coal operators the advantage of exploited non-union labor, in addition to the natural advantages of surface seams and relatively new mines equipped with modern machinery. The resulting shrinkage of the market for union coal induced the operators of the older unionized fields to open a battle of desperation against the United Mine Workers, a battle in which the operators were able to avail themselves of some of the previously mentioned anti-labor decisions and injunctions to destroy many of the union strongholds. What has already taken place today in the coal industry may take place tomorrow in other industries. So that if the labor injunction follows an unchecked course the day may not be far distant, if it has not already dawned, when unionism will be fighting with its back to the wall. It is this contingency which has been moving the labor and liberal forces of the country to seek ways and means for minimizing the force of the labor injunction.

"The Labor Injunction" throws little light upon the influence of injunctions upon the fate of trade unionism and of strikes, especially their connection with the damaging series of defeats inflicted upon the United Mine Workers of America, or upon the efficacy of injunctions in diminishing proscribed conduct. Nor does it throw any light upon the question of whether the injunction has made possible the development of better relations between capital and labor, as Mr. Merritt and his colleagues of the League for Industrial Rights aver, or whether, on the contrary, the injunction has lessened the prestige of the judiciary and has stimulated revolutionary sentiment as the labor and liberal forces assert. These, and kindred, questions are not easily susceptible of definite answer. And yet these are questions that are basic to the problem of the legal status of organized labor.

On the other hand, "The Labor Injunction" represents a valuable contribution towards the comprehension of the legal phases of labor's difficulties. Indeed, the volume comes with particular appropriateness at this time, when public lethargy has been somewhat dispelled by the assaults of the labor and liberal forces upon Messrs. Hughes and Parker directly and upon the conservative majority of the Supreme Court indirectly. It is probable that the Senatorial onslaughts have served to remind the judiciary of the danger dealt with in some detail by the authors of "The Labor Injunction," that as the New York State Court of Appeals has put it, "sterility and unconscious partisanship readily assume the subtle guise of legal principles" when dealing with the explosive material of a labor conflict. No one has been more alive to this danger than Mr. Justice Holmes, who has repeatedly dwelt on the complexity of the jural tools involved in labor disputes, and the possibility that in such disputes the economic sympathies and comprehension of the judge play a definitive rôle in the decisions reached.

To the educated layman, to lawyers, economists, and editors "The Labor Injunction" is a veritable godsend. The book is a scholarly and dispassionate treatment, from a liberal point of view, of some of the chief questions

centering about the legal status of organized labor. The authors trace the "Allowable Area of Economic Conflict," as defined by the courts of industrial Massachusetts and New York, and by the Federal judiciary. They describe the laxity of the procedure and the perfunctory and untrustworthy nature of the proof required for the issue of injunctions, indicated by the fact that in 118 cases reported in the Federal courts, within the last twenty-seven years, 70 ex parte restraining orders were granted without notice to the defendants or opportunity to be heard, most of these orders being issued upon the basis of a conventional bill of complaint, unaccompanied even by affidavits, in themselves "an untrustworthy class of proof." The authors point out, furthermore, that it is this "untrustworthy class of proof," as Judge Amidon has termed it, which is usually the basis of the temporary injunction which ordinarily follows the ex parte order, despite the fact that such injunctions usually settle the issue for all practical purposes, most of them, if Federal practice is typical, never going to final hearing. A separate chapter deals with the efflorescence in the scope of labor injunctions to include any one to whose notice the injunction may come, whether directly concerned in the matter or not, and the enforcement of the injunction by judges who combine the function of judge, jury, and complainant in almost total disregard of the constitutional guarantees of trial by jury and of freedom of speech and press. Another chapter traces competently the history of past legislative proposals affecting the legal status of organized labor under the heading of Legislation Affecting Substantive Law, Equity Jurisdiction, and Equity Procedure. The final chapter summarizes the issues underlying recent legislative proposals and subjects to a brief analysis the bill drawn up in 1928 by the Senate Subcommittee on the Judiciary, headed by Senator Norris, which attempted to remedy labor's complaints. The book also contains a set of valuable appendices, including some of the most controversial of the labor injunctions and a mine of footnote wealth.

In conclusion, it may with justice be said that "The Labor Injunction" represents a notable contribution to the literature on the subject. It accomplishes this not only by its scholarly analyses, but also because of the high level of social idealism upon which its discussions are pitched. The authors have incorporated in their study in a measurable degree the spirit of the dedication to Mr. Justice Brandeis, "For whom Law is not a system of artificial reason, but the application of ethical ideals with freedom at the core."

DANIEL TENROSEN.

New York City.

The Kingdom of Saint James—a Narrative of the Mormons. By Milo M. Quaife. Yale University Press. New Haven, 1930. 284 pp.

"Adequate" would be a succinct characterization of this new volume by the Secretary of the Burton Historical Association at Detroit. This is high praise, indeed, for a book dealing with a subject on which no completely authoritative and unbiased work yet exists, although a hundred years and some thousands of tracts have already passed over its head.

The history of the Mormon Theocracy is always interesting as an example of the workings of both religious feeling and democracy à la *America*. Still more entertaining is this story of James J. Strang, "the Mormon who tried to be king in early Wisconsin." Treated in a gently ironical manner, albeit with evident understanding, this second Mormon prophet assumes the rôle of hero and martyr to his attempt to establish an earthly kingdom of God in Wisconsin. For those deluded followers of King James, who were led by sincere religious conviction to believe in his divine mission, the author has a kindly sympathy. For those opportunists who flocked to Strang's standard as they did to that of the main Mormon body in Missouri, Illinois, and Utah, in the expectation of "easy pickings" and protection, there is the exposure to the contempt of posterity. For those Gentiles of early Wisconsin, who finally drove the Saints from their earthly kingdom, there is an understanding of their position in the face of this

aggressive and troublesome sect, and a biting sarcasm for their method of persuasion. And, lastly, for the prophet of God himself, there is praise for his attempts to better the conditions of his followers, and strong blame for beginning such an imposture and for the lack of certain qualities of leadership necessary to the successful working out of the scheme.

"The Kingdom of Saint James" is a scholarly work, based, for the most part, apparently, on primary sources, and showing a facility of prosody lacking in so much of the historical work of today. There is, however, one criticism which holds true not only of this volume, but of many other monographs. The Strangite movement was after all but a brief, lurid flash in Mormon history. At its height, its membership was probably not much more than two to three thousand souls, as compared with the main Mormon body of about fifty thousand. To dedicate a whole volume to the story of this schismatic sect without a good explanation of the connection of this part with Mormon history as a whole tends to give the ordinary reader, who is unfamiliar with the details of that history, an exaggerated idea of the importance of the Beaver Island colony. To the reviewer, therefore, a chapter supplying this explanation seems necessary to the rounding out of the book.

It is to be hoped, in conclusion, that Mr. Quaife or some one equally competent will do for Mormonism as a whole what has been done in this volume for the Strangite movement.

SIDNEY R. NUSSENFELD.

New York City.

The Sources for the Early History of Ireland, volume I, *Ecclesiastical*. By James F. Kenney. *Records of Civilization*, edited by Austin P. Evans. Columbia University Press, New York, 1929. xvi, 807 pp., 2 maps. \$12.50.

Most students who read notices of this work and do not see the volume for themselves are likely to receive the impression that it is only a remarkable piece of bibliographical and manuscript research. It should be noticed, therefore, that it is, in addition to these things, almost an ecclesiastical history in itself. Dr. Kenney is most painstaking to insure the accuracy of the narratives and explanations which he uses as mortar for his quarried materials, and it is gratifying to find the critical side of his undertaking amplified in this way. Students of Irish history before 1170, who begin by using this book for reference, are almost certain to have their attention arrested by the generously full historical and historiographical comments, and therefore bless a compiler who has humanized a great technical accomplishment by illuminating it with confident scholarly annotation. In particular, there should be noted the introductory chapter on "History in Ireland," which serves as an excellent foundation for the work, indeed, for the study of Irish history, and which will save the reader from wasteful effort in using the materials which follow. Irish historiography, which has been hitherto largely undistinguished, will henceforth have no excuse for being so in the years before 1170.

Criticism of this volume can only come with its use. The magnitude of what it attempts is matched by the twenty years which went into its making, and the combination would seem to be justification for expecting that faults will be confined to the normal probability of error. It was to be expected from the character of his other writings, and particularly from his publications for the Public Archives of Canada, that the apparatus, scholarly and typographical, of Dr. Kenney's book would be admirable. It is so, and provides another source of confidence for the user. For successful reproduction of intricately differentiated materials the Columbia University Press and their printers, Braunworth & Co., of Brooklyn, deserve congratulation for a quite high degree of success.

The present volume "is designed to serve as an introduction and guide to the study of the written sources for the early history of Ireland, so far as they have been made available in print," and with its companion (secular sources) is planned to "constitute a fairly complete survey

of the documentary—the word is used in its broadest sense—sources of early Irish history." The present performance justifies these aims, and Dr. Kenney is to be congratulated on his progress in a field of scholarship to which, through extensive supplementary learning, he has added distinction.—B.

Science and Thought in the Fifteenth Century. Studies in the History of Medicine and Surgery, Natural and Mathematical Science, Philosophy and Politics. By Lynn Thorndike. Columbia University Press, New York, 1929. xiv, 387 pp.

This book ought to prove of special value to the student investigating the history of scientific thought and practice during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. A number of the chapters have been published as articles in scientific journals, but a few are quite new. They are, for the most part, based on study of manuscript sources in the libraries of Europe. Seven of them deal with the state of medical lore during the last two centuries of the Middle Ages: the treatises by Coluccio Salutati and John Baldus on the relative dignity of law and medicine; the manuscript text of the *Cirurgia* of Leonard of Bertipaglia; the *Practica Chirurgie* of doubtful authorship; a treatise on the heart by John of Arezzo; the *De tuenda sanitate* of Bernardus Tornius; the *De decretoriis diebus* of Giovanni Martellini; and, finally, a remarkable account of an anatomical dissection by Bernardus Tornius.

These chapters in general show that the study and practice of medicine made little advance under the influence of the humanists, who were interested more in the artistic use of language than in the study of nature. Two other chapters deal with the scientific achievements of Nicholas of Cusa, Peurbach, and Regiomontanus. Nicholas' boasted excellence in physics and mechanics appears to be unfounded, and Peurbach and Regiomontanus, while excellent scientists and worthy of their laurels, owe their reputation chiefly to the fact that their works were printed by their contemporary admirers. The fame of their names thus soon overshadowed that of their worthy predecessors, whose works remained unprinted.

There is one chapter on a mathematical treatise in French by Jean Adam, and two on philosophical scholars, such as Niccolò da Foligno, Gregorius Crispus, Bartholomæus Facius, Johannes Nescius, and John Michael Albert of Carrara. The study on the political thought of Lippo Brandolini provides an interesting contrast to that of Machiavelli. In it Professor Thorndike prints an interesting passage, which explains and justifies the conduct of the commune of Florence toward outsiders. At the end of the book are twenty-two appendices, all of them of a technical nature, and usually reproducing parts of the texts discussed in the chapters.

It would be a mistake to assume, since the chapters are loaded with much technical matter and the appendices devoted to parts of the texts, that the book can be of little interest to the busy teacher or the casual student. Throughout, the author comments on the nature of the Renaissance and severely criticizes prevalent notions perpetuated in textbooks that it was a period of great originality in scientific thought. The first chapter, *The Study of Western Science of the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Centuries*, ought to be read and pondered well by every teacher of history. The old, uncritical assumption that during the Middle Ages no progress in science was made is wholly untenable. On the contrary, it is more and more becoming apparent that the scientific activity, especially in medicine and surgery, during the Middle Ages was truly significant, while the period of the Renaissance really contributed but little until Vesalius for the first time in human history made anatomy the indispensable basis for the study and practice of medicine and surgery.

H. S. LUCAS.

Russian Schools and Universities in the World War. By Dimitry M. Odinetz and Paul J. Novgorotsev, with an Introduction by Count Paul N. Ignatiev. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1929. xxv, 239 pp.

The addition of this volume to the unique series produced by the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, under the general title of "Economic and Social History of the World War," has rendered available to the English-speaking reader a very significant chapter in the history of contemporary Russia. Its significance lies in the fact that the problem of education has been and still remains one of the most difficult and most important problems in the development of that country. While the accomplishments made in the field of education under the Soviet régime have not been given less publicity than they deserve, the wartime progress of the Russian educational system has been almost entirely overlooked. And yet it was at the time of the World War that the cultural growth of the nation was most directly affected by the educational activity within its ranks.

The development of Russian education during the war, as outlined in the volume under consideration, presents three independent and almost equally important aspects. In the first place, it was a period in which a nearly superhuman effort was made, the first effort, we must note, to introduce a new democratized and humanized system of primary and secondary education to the unenlightened masses of Russia. This was done under the brilliant leadership of Count Ignatiev, the war-time Minister of Education, who successfully fought against the heavy odds of the difficult war conditions, as well as the unsympathetic, even reactionary, attitude on the part of the ruling group. Both Mr. Odinetz and Professor Novgorotsev, in their respective essays on schools and universities, strongly emphasize this purely educational aspect of the problem by discussing in detail the constructive program of Ignatiev's ministry.

Another phase to be considered is, on one hand, the part which was filled by the entire Russian system of education in the vast interplay of forces involved in the World War, and, on the other hand, the influence of war on the educational activity in the country, as well as on life and mentality of students and teachers of primary, secondary,

and higher schools. Mr. Odinetz draws a vivid picture of the psychological effects of war on school life. This he appropriately supplements by a detailed description of social and economic conditions which were a result of prolonged hostilities. Two analogous chapters are found in Professor Novgorotsev's treatment of universities and higher technical schools.

Last, but in the present reviewer's opinion, the most important aspect of the subject-matter of this volume is its direct relevance to the Russian Revolution of 1917. The Russian Revolution was largely a mechanical process, but it was set in motion by a peculiar state of the public mind. The extent to which the revolutionary mentality of Russia was shaped by the war conditions is most clearly shown by the two monographs contained in the book. If only to realize how deep was the imprint left by the war on the receptive mind of the Russian youth, one must read this volume. It impresses upon the reader the fact that the revolutionary mentality was graduated from the four-year training school of war, and that during the revolution it was primarily a reaction from their war experiences that caused the masses to take part in the movement. If, in comparing the World War with the Russian Revolution, we must admit that the latter was far more important of the two events in influencing the future of our civilization, we must also express our regret that the book had been written without specifically treating the subject of Russian education during the war in the light of its causative significance with respect to the revolution.

James T. Shotwell being the general editor of the series, and Michael T. Florinsky being responsible for the Russian part of it, it is needless to say that the editing of the present volume preserves the general standard of excellence of the entire collection. Both coauthors have been prominent and active as educators, thus being exceptionally well-fitted to give an authoritative presentation of their first-hand knowledge of the subject. A brief preface to the book is contributed by Count Ignatiev.

BORIS B. SHISHKIN.

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Chicago

Mexican Immigration to the United States. By Manuel Gamio. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1930. 262 pp.

The recent agitation to place Mexican immigration on the quota basis, culminating in the Harris-Box bill, renders this book of timely importance. Dr. Gamio, who is well-known as a scholar in the field of archeology, in this study sponsored by the Social Science Research Council, presents an authoritative survey of this vital question.

The Mexican immigrant is shown to be a very unstable inhabitant of this country, returning annually in great numbers to his native land. He is little inclined to become a citizen of the United States, and contributes very little to our country except a seasonal supply of labor. He is, however, affected by the experience, and returns to Mexico with certain external evidences of American civilization. Usually it is some modern convenience with which he hopes to raise his standard of living at home—a bathtub, bed, refrigerator, stove, or some smaller article, such as a phonograph.

In this country he tends to congregate in his own section of the town, for he does not quickly learn the language. There the immigrant produces a distinct phase of American life, which, described so interestingly by Dr. Gamio, will be significant for the social historian. People of southern California and Texas have long been aware of this immigrant influence, if that is the correct terminology, but it will be a revelation to others. Songs of the immigrant, his religion, his recreation, and mode of living are given due attention by the author.

The final chapter embodies some suggestions for control of Mexican immigration. Dr. Gamio would have the harmonious collaboration of the interested groups in both countries. The Mexican Government should restrict permanent emigration through legal means. One of the great difficulties heretofore has been the illegal entry of Mexicans into the United States. He would continue the policy of encouraging repatriation of Mexican immigrants, begun by Obregon and Calles.

The United States Government, on the other hand, suggests the author, should modify its immigration law to give temporary "contract" labor unlimited admission, provided its return were paid for and furnished by the employer. He would apply a quota to permanent immigrants, and require that only these should pay the *visé* fee and head tax. This system, he believes, with the proper provision for the co-operation of authorities and distributing agencies for labor, would meet the demands of both peoples as well as the economic exigency.

There are some American economists, however, who will attack the "contract labor" scheme, believing that diversification of crops is a more lasting, if more difficult, solution to the problem of seasonal labor. It can be urged, likewise, that the American Government has now virtually cut off Mexican immigration by a strict enforcement of *visé* regulations and by augmentation of the border patrol.

Dr. Gamio is to be congratulated upon the thoroughness with which he and his associates have worked the statistical material, some of which he has since published separately in Mexico. With such an admirable study before us we shall expectantly await the companion volume to be issued by the same press, "The Mexican Immigrant: His Life Story."

MILTON W. HAMILTON.

Albright College.

The Basic Industries and Social History of Japan, 1914-1918. By Ushisaburo Kobayashi. Yale University Press for the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, New Haven, 1930. xiv, 280 pp.

This second volume of the Japanese series in the Economic and Social History of the World War was prepared under the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace by Ushisaburo Kobayashi, Professor of Economics, Meiji University, Tokyo. It covers an interesting field dealing with the effect of the World War upon the basic industries and social history of Japan. It is divided into four parts, the first dealing with agriculture and the farmer, the sec-

ond with mining and metallurgy, the third with forestry and fishing, and the last a summary of the economic measures taken by the government to control and direct prices and production of basic commodities.

While the author has made some contribution in assembling the various measures taken by the government and private associations to control and direct the economic forces of the empire during the war years, numerous errors in the statistical material presented undermine the reader's faith in the value of any conclusions that he may reach. Besides careless and ineffective statistical presentation, omissions of the unit or of the base year, errors in the use of percentages, and failure to give the source of the data, the author has not co-ordinated his material for the best understanding by the reader. In the discussion of a commodity, he makes use of different units of measure, which either force the reader to do considerable mental arithmetic or leave him without any basis of comparison. He uses Japanese or western units as they happen to occur in his data, with no attempt to make conversions. For example, the discussion of sulphate of ammonia is obscured by the use of piculs and tons, which when converted to the one or the other appear to conceal a serious error. The author has also been content in many instances to use value as the measure of change in a period that was admittedly marked by extreme fluctuations in prices and by currency inflation. For some of the commodities, at least, quantitative measures are known to exist. The text could be shortened and made more readable by the use of charts and by the better use of tables for the presentation of price fluctuations on the exchanges. There is also considerable unnecessary repetition.

The author's generalizations are sometimes inaccurate and often without significance. In the discussion of agriculture, he makes a point of the ceaseless exodus from the farm to the city and of the resultant scarcity of farm labor and increase in farm wages. His statistical material, however, shows no depopulation of the rural areas, but an increase in numbers during the period under discussion. According to the data presented, the changes in the level of farm wages have been no more than those induced by rising prices and currency inflation. There are many other instances of faulty analysis by the author. It should, of course, be remembered, that Professor Kobayashi is writing in an alien language, and that he should not be judged too harshly for the ineffectiveness of his presentation. The Carnegie Endowment, in the preparation of the manuscript for publication, could have caught many of the points that have been criticized in the present review.

DOROTHY J. ORCHARD.

New York City.

Studies in Medieval Culture. By Charles H. Haskins. The Oxford University Press, New York, 1929. viii, 295 pp.

One of the outstanding accomplishments of modern historiography has been to rehabilitate and place in its proper perspective the importance of the Middle Ages. Happily, much of the mischief accomplished by the Humanists of the Renaissance, in scorning the Middle Ages as a period of intellectual and cultural poverty, has been dissipated to a great degree. The author of "Studies in Medieval Culture" has played a very important rôle in bringing about this new understanding.

This volume, as its title indicates, is a series of studies in medieval culture. The topics selected are in no way related, except as they are phases of the cultural life of the Middle Ages. By careful selection and arrangement of the materials, they have been moulded into a compact whole, possessing a well-balanced unity and community of ideas.

Professor Haskins has not necessarily written a new book. Of the twelve chapters, all but three have been previously published in various learned journals. By the collection of these papers and articles—the fruits of many years of scholarly research—and the publication of the same in book form, we are extremely fortunate in having these contributions from the Haskins historical laboratory in a more convenient form than if they had remained buried

in periodical literature. The three chapters of new materials, heretofore unpublished, are: Manuals for Students (Ch. III), Contacts With Byzantium (Ch. VIII), and The Early *Artes Dictandi* in Italy (Ch. IX).

It is fair to state that this volume will not appeal to a wide audience of readers. It will appeal primarily to the student specializing in medievalism. Its technical nature and spirit decrees this. However, the above observation does not imply that the volume is dull and tedious reading. For example, the first five chapters will appeal to any student of history. In these, basing his studies on the Medieval Latin manuscripts and texts, not widely known, Professor Haskins sets forth in a very stimulating manner an account of higher education in the Middle Ages. In particular, this centers about the activities of the medieval student. From his letters, through contemporary accounts of the University of Paris of the twelfth century and afterwards, and by the Latin manuals of deportment, we are made to realize how active were the intellectual forces of those days. Certainly the period was not one of profound gloom and inertia! Again, how many points in common did the medieval student have with the student of today in interests, virtues, and vices!

Chapter Four, entitled, The Spread of Ideas in the Middle Ages, is possibly the least technical of any in the volume. Here we have a chapter that should gladden even the hearts of the adherents of the New History, though the bulk of the volume will not go far in that direction. The author sketches the channels through which ideas and information spread in the Middle Ages. These were numerous, as we are made to see, and a few may be suggested: the travelling merchant, the wandering student, the troubadour, the traffic in books between the centres of learning. As to the centres from which ideas and information were diffused, such represented different social strata and consisted "chiefly of monasteries and cathedrals, courts, towns, and the universities" (page 94).

Two other studies that merit special mention are those dealing with The Inquisition in Northern France (Ch. X) and The Heresy of Echarde the Baker of Rheims (Ch. XI). Here the author sets up as his problem a study of the presence and nature of a widespread and particularly virulent form of heresy in Northern France and the efforts of the Medieval Church to crush it. Professor Haskins' researches present some extremely interesting light on the existence of heresy, and its nature, in this section of France. It is safe to say the average student of medieval European history is familiar with the existence of heresy and its extermination in the south of France, but not so with relation to the north of France.

A few comments might be made relative to the admirable skill with which Professor Haskins handles such delicate subjects involved in the above-mentioned topics. One readily realizes that in them are the potentialities of dangerous explosions of passion and prejudices, as a vast controversial literature on the subject indicates. However, these studies are signally free from any such possibilities. The method employed is strictly objective. The author's object is to apply "the methods and spirit of modern historical science,....which seeks neither to approve nor condemn,....but to understand it (the *problem*) in the light of its own age" (page 193). Every page reflects how successful this aim has been attained.

The concluding chapter traces the progress of medieval studies in the United States as "exemplified by brief memoirs of the two leading American medievalists of the past generation, Henry Charles Lea and Charles Gross" (page vii).

The Oxford Press is to be congratulated on the beautiful piece of workmanship in the making of this book. It is of their usual high standards in book publishing.

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Turkey in the World War. By Ahmed Emin, Ph.D. [Economic and Social History of the World War, edited by James T. Shotwell.] Yale University Press, New Haven, 1930. xviii, 310 pp.

It is a characteristic of modern journalism that things of a bizarre, exotic, or novel nature receive attention in the press out of all proportion to their intrinsic worth. Due to this fact the Ottoman Empire was known to American readers as an area where massacres occurred, misgovernment was rife, minorities were persecuted, and corruption and bribery were epidemic. But it might at the same time have been pointed out as a country where religious tolerance emerged earlier than in western Europe, where for centuries peoples of radically different cultures had dwelt in peace and plenty under a Moslem ruling class, where authority had at an early date been subordinated to reason, and where many of the unhappy events which attracted attention in Europe and in America resulted from the attempt to apply ideas and sentiments, such as modern nationalism, which had their origin in western civilization.

Any book, therefore, which pictures the Ottoman forest as well as the trees should receive a warm welcome in critical circles in America. This is such a book. Many of the trees were dead and decayed long ago, yet continued to dominate the horizon at a time when they should have been destroyed. But their portrayal by a Turk, who does not hesitate to call a tree a tree, should be a special recommendation of the work to Americans, who pride themselves on their ability to see the whole landscape.

As a matter of fact, this volume is something more than its title indicates. The history of that vast area known as the Ottoman Empire (which is wrongly named Turkey in the title) was too little known to the general reader to allow the author to confine himself solely to a treatment of the war period. Hence, the first five chapters (there are twenty-seven altogether) are devoted to a brief historical résumé of the founding, expansion, and consolidation of the Ottoman Empire, the part that war as an institution played in these processes, the progressive decline since Suleiman's day, the effort to survive instituted by Mahmoud II at the beginning of the nineteenth century, the reversion under Abdul Hamid II, and finally the contributions of the Young Turks to national survival.

With this as a background, the author then proceeds to present the war period in greater detail. Certain of the subjects treated in this, the main part of the book, are: how Turkey entered the war; resources and equipment; war government; the general economic policy during the war; the food question; prices and wages; war finances; reforms during the war; the Armenians and the war; etc., etc. Probably no country entered the war with greater handicaps than the Ottoman Empire. A degenerated agricultural economy, no industrial structure worthy of the name, a woeful lack of transport facilities, a segmented population the majority of which manifested separatist tendencies, a politically undeveloped people lorded over by a party dictatorship so centralized that only three men knew of the alliance with Germany when it became a *fait accompli*: these are only some of the factors which made participation in the war more than an ordinary risk. The effects did not constitute a pretty picture.

At the end of the book there are three short chapters on the after-effects of the war. In reality, they tell a running story of the foundation of the Turkish Republic, but one which connects neatly with the material presented earlier.

Among the best sections of the book are the chapters: How Turkey Entered the War, War Finances, War and Religion, Turkish Nationalism, and Armenians and the War. Possibly the most revealing statement is this: "The secret [of the transition of one of the most static societies in the world to one of the most dynamic] lies in the remarkable discovery by Mustapha Kemal Pasha that the elements of reaction and fanaticism in Turkey never possessed any influence of their own, but enjoyed only that influence which the public authorities let them have in return for the protection they extended to rulers." In two appendices are to be found many interesting data taken from the 1927 Turkish census, as well as a statement of the foreign debt

of Turkey. It is unfortunate that the volume contains no index, although there is a fairly complete bibliography. DONALD C. BLAISDELL,

Williams College.

Labor and Capital in National Politics. By Harwood L. Childs. The Ohio State University Press, Columbus, 1930. xiii, 286 pp.

Students of political science and history are coming to a realization of the fact that numerous extra-constitutional groups are having a vital effect upon the conduct of government, causing the passage of laws and directing their administration afterwards. The need for a better understanding of these groups is recognized and makes this volume most welcome. Mr. Childs has chosen the Chamber of Commerce of the United States and the American Federation of Labor as his vehicles for an exposition of the ways in which economic bodies set themselves up as auxiliaries to rigid political units in order to adapt the latter to the needs of a rapidly evolving industrial society. There is a brief account of the origin of these two groups. The Chamber is found to have ramified widely from its initial objective, from "an organization designed to assemble business opinions for the convenience of governmental officials to an agency aiming to create public opinion on business matters and militantly to carry them into effect." The Federation, on the other hand, has clung persistently to its original program for securing legislation in the interest of the working people.

Next comes a lengthy elaboration upon their respective structures and functioning, with special attention to the means devised for formulating and executing policies. Many of the differences between them are shown to be attributable to the contrast in their constituencies. The Chamber furnishes a somewhat larger body of material, because its character and affluence enable it to maintain the more complex organization. There is set forth illuminating information, in convenient compass, to show how the wheels of the Chamber and the Federation machinery revolve about the House and Senate ends of the Capitol and down the Avenue to the White House and Executive Departments. One reads how the wheels are kept going by skilful utilization of conventions, committees, "conferences," and referenda. The technique of "high pressure publicity" stands forth. Specific legislative and administrative acts are cited as affected by Chamber and Federation activities. In other words, the artificial line of demarcation between politics and economics, which long has obscured a fair understanding of their interaction, is erased.

Having presented these two groups for what they are today, the author closes with a consideration of what such groups in general may become in the future. He posits several pertinent problems arising from the current situation as to the political contacts of Chamber and Federation. The reader is invited to consider these queries, all of which are thought-provoking. Should the economic group be formally institutionalized in the state (the author thinks this might lessen adaptability)? Ought the competitive balance of influence among such groups be adjusted on a criterion of numbers, or wealth, or intelligence; and how could any such criteria be measured? Should the state set limits to lavish expenditures for high pressure publicity and influence? Can group responsibility be insured among such flexible organizations as the Chamber and Federation? Can the progressive aristocracy operating in them be so offset as to maintain democratic control over their leaders and staff? Can groups be educated to keep mere inflammatory material out of their propaganda so as to make regulation of publicity by the state unnecessary (the author deplors state censorship)? And, above all, how may the Chamber, the Federation, and other groups be turned away from a tendency to make the state a mere servant for fulfilling their wishes, into the direction of adapting their own functioning to the real needs of the state? The future is expected to reveal an increase in the number of such groups working under the methods now so familiar, while the field diminishes in which "they can serve their own interests best by facilitating government procedure."

The author is not able to rid himself of certain encumbrances of style, but his approach to his problem is devoid of cant and pleasingly matter-of-fact. The tone throughout the volume is dispassionate, and the diction is so cautious that no offense is offered to any cast of opinion. As the author suggests, it is to be hoped that many more additions will be made to our information in this field, since the division of labor between parties and economic groups is inescapable, and since the latter are "becoming the agent of the citizen in securing the passage of laws and directing their administration."

JEANNETTE P. NICHOLS.

Philadelphia.

The Seventeenth Century. By G. N. Clark. Oxford University Press, New York, 1929. xii, 372 pp. 7 maps.

This is a thoroughly satisfying historical monograph. It is the product of broad, mature scholarship; it is very clear in its conception and execution, and it employs good sense as its constant criterion. There is in its footnotes a little of the professional modesty of the specialist who says, "I am not qualified to speak of such and such matters," and thereby earns an added authority for what he does write, but that small fault is cancelled by the great relief which it affords from the confidence of so many writers nowadays who cheerfully subordinate accuracy to comprehensiveness. Mr. Clark, by his knowledge and his judgment, steadily builds upon his reader both confidence and approval, and, that done, criticism gives way to enjoyment.

The author has chosen a century of Western civilization, which in growth and invention did more than any other except the nineteenth to shape our present world, and he is generous in the matter of bridges back to the sixteenth and forward to the eighteenth centuries. Within certain limits set down in his introduction, he takes some twenty activities (as economic, military, colonial, and ecclesiastical) and attempts to show in what ways they were related.

without supporting any single synthesis of them. It is a method admirably suited to the destruction of many too-swift generalizations and current historical myths. There is perhaps more emphasis on England than on any other country, but for once the Low Countries receive something like the credit which is their due in European history. Moreover, Mr. Clark cites a large number of first-class continental monographs of the kind whose specialization too often excludes them from English bibliographical notes. No brief statement of the contents would be fair, but it can be said that no matter what the topic, there is hardly a page without illustrative material of a particularly fresh and intimate sort. The Clarendon Press is to be commended for the manner in which the maps are inserted on slip pages at the ends of the book, so that any or all may be drawn out for spasmodic consultation, without interfering with continuous reading or making the book awkward to handle. It is not to be expected that the reader will agree with all the opinions or historical analyses of the book. The account of the Thirty Years' War, for instance, seems a little too prettily dynastic and too oblivious of the economic importance of the Baltic. Some subjects, notably architecture, are rather summarily dismissed. On the other hand, I have not detected any errors, except for the fact that St. Andrews on map number six seems to have strayed from where golfers go to look for it today.—B.

Unafraid: A Life of Anne Hutchinson. By Winnifred King Rugg. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1930. 263 pp.

As a philosopher, detached, amused, and yet sympathetic and pitiful, Winnifred King Rugg, through a perspective of three centuries, sketches with delicate, clear pencil strokes the tragedy of the Antinomian, "the Jezebel," "the Unafraid Anne Hutchinson."

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deaconess, the district nurse, the psychiatrist, and the evangelist.

To make clear the canvas for these modern traits, the author keeps somewhat in the background Anne's fourteen children, born at Alford, at London, and in Boston from 1613 to 1638. It is not Anne, the Puritan mother, whose troubles are described. As Anne, the gentlewoman, the rector's daughter, she had a brood of twelve little sisters and brothers to care for. As Anne Hutchinson, the prolific wife of the merchant, Will Hutchinson, in the primeval wilderness at Boston, her household needed much care. In domestic affairs, too, Anne apparently was modern, for she must have delegated many of these duties to her maids. Her mind had to be free for the philosophical discussion of the fine points of the weekly sermons. In 1634, in the "Griffin," of three hundred tons, two hundred Puritans made the fifty-day passage to Boston. With them came one hundred head of cattle, yet the voyage, for those who loved discussion, was delightful, for it was one long, protracted meeting. In these cabin discussions Anne was often the leader.

Like the modern woman, Anne at forty-three drew her inspiration from a soulmate, the Reverend John Cotton, age forty-nine. Like the gifted feminist of today, Anne's ability as a magnetic speaker roused the jealous opposition and rivalry of less-gifted male divines. The weekly discussion groups which Lady Anne the Bountiful held in her log-cabin salon were the first meetings of the Transcendentalists. At last, however, her rivals triumphed. In spite of her husband's wealth and position, in spite of the friendship of the Reverend John Cotton and Sir Harry Vane, in spite of the tears and protests of all her female protégés, the proud Anne was ex-communicated at last and driven out of Boston. She was an Antimonian; that is, she taught, in modern phrase, "Get your mental attitude right, and your conduct will be right." Of her journeying to Roger Williams' settlement in Rhode Island, of her husband's death in 1642, and of her last moves with seven of her minor children to Hell Gate, and then again to Pelham Bay, the author gives a swift, tragic narrative.

The book, of 250-odd pages, is charming in style. There is alertness of comparison and timeliness of phrasing. There are quick word flashes, which show the similarities and the contrasts in Anne's martyrdom, and in the Bolshevik persecutions of today, in Anne's voice crying in the wilderness, and in the weaving of words in the club discussion groups of 1930.

The book shows a clever mastery of much research material, for, after the first two chapters, one is not conscious of the artist's efforts to draw the historic background. It is all sketched with such light, clever strokes that the grim realities of pioneering, of child-bearing, of religious persecution, of exile, and even of Indian massacre serve but to ennoble the pioneer Anne, who did so much to help make clear a broad, free road for the mannikin-trim woman of today.

S. A. WALLACE.

Washington, D. C.

Correspondence

EDITOR OF THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK: On page 178, Volume XXI, No. 4, HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, in the last paragraph, first column, mention is made of "Standardized Objective Exercises in American History," by Wilson T. Betts. Through an error the Southwestern Publishing Company is credited with the publication of that book, whereas it should be The Southern Publishing Company, Dallas, Texas. As you may know, the Southwestern Publishing Company is located in Cincinnati, Ohio.

Yours very truly,
THE SOUTHERN PUBLISHING COMPANY,
By J. L. Gragg.

EDITOR OF THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK: I notice in the current issue of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK some communications in which some of the readers are deprecating the amount of methods and pedagogical material carried in the columns of the magazine recently.

For my own part, I am glad to read both the research studies and the pedagogical material. While I have taught history for several years, I very often find new and helpful materials in articles describing new methods of teaching procedure. Perhaps the college teachers who read the magazine would prefer that the contents be mostly subject-matter. However, I should judge that a good fraction of the readers of the periodical are not all college teachers, but high school and elementary teachers. It has seemed to me that in making up the magazine you have tried to strike a balance between the two types of material. If the magazine were published by a historical society, whose interests are more or less strictly academic, methods material would not be expected. But in a periodical for all those whose interests are history and social science, I think that the course you have followed in the past is the correct one.

It would be a fine thing if some generous philanthropist would donate enough money to place a membership in the National Council and a subscription to THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK in the hands of every teacher who cannot honestly afford to pay for the membership himself. There are many such teachers, some of them teaching at low salaries in poor schools, who would not be able to keep up a membership under the conditions in which they are now working. They are teaching all grades, and in many cases the students will get their whole knowledge of history from them. Try as these teachers will, it is hard to find enough money to pay even a membership in the state and national education associations. However, the encouraging thing about this situation is that many of these persons will get into better schools as soon as possible. Then they will avail themselves of more professional growth. The pity is that even in a part of their teaching they cannot have the help which they need.

As another argument for more methods articles, it seems that another type of teachers of social studies should be considered. In Indiana and elsewhere, no doubt, there are many persons teaching history, or rather pretending to do so, who are absolutely ignorant of any method except a dull, dry lecture, which is of no interest to any one except the lecturer. In some cases this situation cannot be avoided. However, in many instances, even in cities which supposedly maintain good school organizations, this unprepared, uninterested type of teacher is found. Indiana has had in the past a "blanket" license, which permitted the holder to teach any subject in any public school. Under this license, people who had had little or no work in social science are teaching work for which they are unprepared. In some cases principals of schools hold to the idea that a person who holds such a certificate should be given the work which fits in best with the rest of the program, instead of that for which he was prepared.

In my opinion, it would be a good thing if all such administrators and teachers could be required to take and read such magazines as THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK. If they could not profit by what instruction in methods that they could get from such magazines and by the taking of professional courses, then they should be replaced with others who will.

The greatest handicap which a history teacher faces in this part of the United States today is the attitude that any one can teach history. More students have "soured" on history through teaching by this type of instructor than for any other reason.

So, again I say—keep your methods articles in the magazine.

Sincerely yours,

ALBERT A. ORTH.

Terre Haute, Ind.

The United States and the Caribbean, by Chester Lloyd Jones, Henry Kittredge Norton, and Parker Thomas Moon (University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1929. xi, 230 pp.), is the second of a series of small volumes on American Foreign Policies published by the Chicago Council on Foreign Relations, the first having dealt with Mexico. In this volume Professor Jones traces historically the fundamental elements of America's relations with the Caribbean

countries. Mr. Norton's essay is in reality a defense of the United States in its dealings with the countries of the Caribbean area. Professor Moon, on the other hand, is exceedingly critical of American motives and policies, and concludes that the United States needs to adjust its diplomatic and economic technique if its policy is to be "the negation of imperialism." Everyone interested in American imperialism should read this volume.

Paddle Wheels and Pistols (Macrae Smith Company, Philadelphia, 1929. 329 pp.), by Irvin Anthony, will appeal to boys and girls. Depicting some of the outstanding events and the more colorful phases of life along the Mississippi, the volume, despite its lavishness of format and illustration, contains little of interest for the already overburdened reading adult public.

Edwin L. Sabin's *Wild Men of the Wild West* (Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York, 1929. xiv, 363 pp.) is a stirring narrative of some of the more picturesque characters of the old frontiers. Those who enjoy thrilling stories will relish the author's lively account of such outlaws as roaring Luke Fink, the pirate Lafitte, Joaquin Murieta, Three-Fingered Jack, Wild Bill Hickok, Billy the Kid, and others. Mr. Sabin has written extensively for boys, and this volume, like its predecessors, will appeal especially to that clientele.

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- Barrows, D. P., and Williams, D. R. Comments on the political and economic status of the Philippines. San Francisco: San Francisco Chamber of Commerce. 30 pp.
- Bates, Ernest S. This land of liberty. N. Y.: Harper. 393 pp. (17 p. bibl.). \$3.00.
- Beale, Howard K. The critical year; a study of Andrew Johnson and reconstruction. N. Y.: Harcourt. 463 pp. (28 p. bibl.). \$3.75.
- Beard, Charles A., and Beard, Mary R. The rise of American civilization [college edition]. N. Y.: Macmillan. 866 pp. (36 p. bibl.). \$4.00.
- Brown, William G. The lower South in American history. New York: Peter Smith. 271 pp. \$3.00.
- Browne, G. W., and Browne, R. M. The story of the old Bay State. Manchester, N. H.: 328 pp. \$1.10.
- Cappon, Lester J. Bibliography of Virginia history since 1865. University, Va.: Univ. of Virginia. 918 pp.
- Chamberlain, Joseph E. The Boston Transcript; a history of its first hundred years. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 253 pp. \$3.50.
- Clark, F. L. The pupils' workbook in American history for Ele. and Jr. High Schools. N. Y.: Scribner. 275 pp. 44 cents.
- Clement, Maud C. The history of Pittsylvania County, Virginia. Lynchburg, Va.: J. P. Bell Co. 349 pp. \$7.50.

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- DeCou, George. Moorestown and her neighbors; historical sketches. Moorestown, N. J.: Author. 155 pp. \$2.75.
- Douglas, Paul H. Real wages in the United States, 1890-1926. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 710 pp. (13 p. bibl.). \$7.50.
- Duffus, Robert L. The Santa Fe Trail. N. Y.: Longmans. 294 pp. (3 p. bibl.). \$5.00.
- Durand, Edward D. American industry and Commerce. Boston: Ginn & Co. 671 pp. \$4.00.
- Falconer, Thomas. Letters and notes on the Texan Santa Fe Expedition, 1841-1842. N. Y.: Dauber & Pine Bookshops, 66 Fifth Ave. 159 pp. \$3.50.
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- Hesseltine, William B. Civil war prisons. Columbus, O.: Ohio State Univ. Press. 301 pp. (23 p. bibl.). \$3.00.
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- Home, Charles F., and Buck, Olive. Young America. N. Y.: C. E. Merrill. 336 pp. \$1.00.
- Howard, James L. Seth Harding, mariner; a naval picture of the Revolution. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 316 pp. (4 p. bibl.). \$3.00.
- Johnson, Charles S. The negro in American civilization. N. Y.: Holt. 552 pp. (24 p. bibl.). \$4.00.
- Jones, E. Alfred. Loyalists in Massachusetts. Boston: C. E. Goodspeed & Co. 341 pp. \$15.00.
- Labor Statistics Bureau. History of wages in the United States from colonial times to 1928. Wash., D. C.: Gov't Pr. Off., Supt. of Docs. 533 pp. 80 cents.

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